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SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

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GENERAL PREFACE

This volume contains the third bound series of *Yearbooks* published by the National Society for the Study of Education. The first series was issued under the title, *Yearbooks of the National Herbart Society*, and the second series as *Yearbooks of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education*. Each issue of the *Yearbook* is a monograph, essentially complete in itself, on some important problem or phase of education. In order to meet the needs of libraries and students of education the *Yearbooks* for each five-year period are assembled and issued in this compact and convenient form.

The general table of contents for this volume gives only the titles of the papers and the names of the authors. A more detailed analysis of the contents will be found at the beginning of each monograph.

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NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

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THE SUBJECT OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 27
1907, AT 4:00 O'CLOCK P. M., IN THE AUDITORIUM HOTEL,
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THE SIXTH YEARBOOK

I

VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

CHEESMAN A. HERRICK

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COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS: A LOOK BACKWARD

Progress in dealing with college entrance requirements for a hundred years should be to the student of education a cure for pessimism. Down to 1807 the standard requirements were Latin, Greek, and arithmetic, but in that year geography was added to the list, and later English grammar, algebra, geometry, and ancient history were included. The teaching of astronomy in college and school led to a recognition of this subject and finally in the first half of the period a general treatise on the physical and chemical sciences under the title of natural philosophy was also accepted.¹ Marked interest in the study of the natural sciences and the modern languages in the third quarter of the nineteenth century led to a recognition of these subjects as deserving a place in the studies for college admission.

The most valuable single discussion of secondary studies yet made was that by the conferences arranged through the Committee of Ten which conferences covered the general field of secondary work and gave us a valuable statement of educational values of subjects to be studied in secondary schools and somewhat of how these values can be realized. Probably no single piece of work has done so much to unify and correlate secondary education as has the famous report of the Committee of Ten. In 1899 a further committee on college admissions submitted a report to the National Educational Association which supplemented the report of the Com-

¹ Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools*.

mittee of Ten and formulated courses of study with more thought of their satisfying the requirements for college admission.

In the reports mentioned above there is clear evidence of the dominance of the college influence. But parallel with the movement that is evidenced in these reports there has been a marked growth of interest in more practical subjects of study that originally came from outside the sacred circle of college entrance studies. These subjects are now asking for recognition along with others which seek to prepare for study in higher institutions. The first marked tendency for vocational education in the secondary schools was the outcome of the Centennial Exhibition of 1876.

The striking results of European manual training schools were there represented in foreign educational exhibits. There was also embodied in the exhibits of the American states the material achievements of a hundred years. These two object lessons gave the impulse for a new educational propaganda, expressed in the motto: "Send the whole boy to school." Many of us remember the bitter controversy over manual training in the eighties, the attempts to discredit it by those high in educational influence, but we also note that manual training has steadily gained ground, that it is now recognized practically everywhere as sound educationally, and it has reached such a stage in development that it can reasonably request the higher institution more to generally recognize its educational worth by having it included in the list of subjects for which college admission is granted.

In the early eighties there began in a crude way the introduction of commercial studies in public and private high schools. The impulse for such an innovation was the competition of the private business school and the demand of communities that our secondary schools should not only give a good education but one also that is good for something. At first these commercial courses were abbreviated as to time and impoverished in curricula, but by lengthening them so that they are equal in time requirements with other courses of a similar grade and enriching them with more practical interpretations of older studies, and the introduction of new subject-matter in the way of applied economics and technical business subjects these commercial schools have been improved until they may fairly claim a place educationally with the other forms of high-school

education and they, as well as manual training, are making demands upon higher institutions for the admission of their students.

Lastly there is beginning to be felt the demand of special education for women. The pressure for recognition of domestic science or home economics courses may still be in the future, but it is as inevitable that the demand for these courses will be made as it is that they will become a recognized part of our education for girls.

RELATIONS OF THE COLLEGE AND THE SCHOOL

Undue credit for the influence of the college on the school has been assumed by the college authorities. The high school, as has been pointed out by the recognized authority on the history of these schools, was originally the extension upwards of the elementary school, and its policies have been formulated by the educational forces below it and by the demands of the community outside of the school as well as by the insistence of the college authorities upon a certain requirement for admission. The Committee of Ten termed the proportion of secondary pupils going to college as insignificant, but more striking than this is the fact that despite the pressure of the colleges, the pupils in the distinctively preparatory courses have not increased relatively with the increase of those not preparing for college. This statement is true for both public and private schools. In 1892-93 the percentage of those preparing for college in public high schools was 14.6. Eleven years later the percentage of those so preparing in the same schools was 9.54. In the private schools for the same period the percentage had fallen from 26.5 to 21.47²

The seventh question propounded for the several conferences in connection with the Committee of Ten's report was: Shall subjects be taught differently to pupils who are going to colleges, to those who are going to a scientific school, and to those who presumably will not enter upon higher studies? In the letter of transmission the Committee says that this question was answered unanimously in the negative. The answer to this question, however, provoked much discussion and called forth dissent. For instance, one writer attempted to show that the question was answered with-

² Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, p. 418; *Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education*, 1904, Vol. I, pp. xvii, xviii.

out being understood.³ The interpretation has been made that those who answered meant to say that college preparatory work is the best work that could be furnished in the secondary schools and there is still a general opinion for which no doubt the college influence is responsible, that the best education which can be given in the schools is of the traditional college entrance type and that as many as possible of the pupils should be led to take this kind of education even though they do not go to college. We shall no doubt ultimately come to an acceptance of the unanimous answer of the Committee of Ten's conferences though perhaps not in the way all the conference meant the answer, certainly not in the way that some have interpreted both the question and the answer. But we shall accept it rather as a statement of the idea that the business of the school is to furnish education and that it should devote itself to this business for all who come to it for instruction regardless of their ultimate destination being attendance at a college.

THE ENDS OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE TESTS

We may well ask the question of Mr. Prettyman's paper in the following collection, do college entrance requirements signify subjects or power? If subjects there is little to be said, but if power then vocational education is entitled to a hearing. And let us also remember that power is to be expressed in feeling and action as well as in thought. One claim of practical studies worthy of consideration is that they relate thought to action. In formulating and enforcing the entrance requirement due regard should be given to the quality and temper of students, their attitude and capacity; if this be not so the colleges will be taking the symbol for the thing symbolized, the form for the spirit. Some of us cannot get away from the conclusion that what the colleges should ask is not a particular "brand" of knowledge but the evidence of maturity of mind and seriousness of purpose on the part of those who seek admission.

Miss Mary E. Haskell in a recent investigation of examinations for non-college going girls was led into a consideration of the training of the girls who go and those who do not go to college. The conclusion was inevitable that there should be less difference than there now is in the treatment of these two classes of pupils. The sug-

³ Butler, *Educational Review*, December, 1896.

gested way to secure uniformity is also as we might have expected. It is by giving less of college entrance education and more of education. Miss Haskell reports that in her correspondence with schools fitting for college she found a very general evidence of the feeling that college entrance requirements could be modified with gains to the pupils going to college and she reaches the conclusion, "we feel so much certain hamperings over our work with the college preparatory girls that we are very desirous, for their sakes as well as for the larger body of girls who do not go to college, that a modification should be brought about in the college entrance requirements."⁴

The suggestion of Professor de Laguna's paper which follows appears a fair way out of the present difficulty when taken in connection with the admission requirements of the University of Michigan. But these requirements differ widely from the practice in general, and particularly so from that in the East. The attempt to follow both general and vocational studies at one time is almost sure to lead to overloading the curriculum which will result in lowering the educational results for all the studies. As the requirements for college admission are now pretty generally enforced it is only the student of special ability in the vocational schools that is able to secure admission for advanced study, or he secures this admission with a heavy disability because of conditions. Harvard's entrance requirements themselves stagger the average student in the secondary school and put him to the test of his best endeavor for four years without any side issues by way of vocational subjects.

The present differences between the practices of the East and the Middle West are fairly shown by comparing the demands made in the paper of Mr. Holmes with the entrance requirements of the University of Michigan as set forth by Professor de Laguna. May it not be that the liberalizing of entrance requirements with the recognition of more modern and more practical studies will come from the democratic community institutions of the Middle West and that the institutions in other sections of the country will be led to an acceptance of the practice after its workings have been demonstrated. We may grant the validity of Professor de Laguna's argu-

⁴ *School Review*, December, 1906.

ment but his premises lay an obligation for a very general modification in our practices with regard to college admission in the country at large.

AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In any discussion of secondary education or college admissions we should keep clearly before us the threefold purposes of the middle schools as they have been set forth by the present United States Commissioner of Education. These purposes are: first, a better adjustment of the middle schools to the schools that are above and below them; second, a better adjustment of these schools to the capacities of their students; and third, a better adjustment of them to the changing needs of our societies. We may, I think, raise the reasonable question whether the first part of the first aim has not exercised an undue influence over the secondary schools. Some years ago a university president, speaking to a company of schoolmen declared that a system of education should be like a pyramid which all the way down takes its shape and its proportions from the apex. His suggested apex is the university, but we are coming to believe that the stone at the apex is to be influenced by the foundations and the other parts of the structure and is not to give its own shape and direction to the whole. Elementary school, middle school, and higher school should find a harmonious balance one with the other and all must be influenced by, as they should in turn influence, our civilization; and finally we cannot emphasize too strongly that schools and courses, college entrance requirements and vocational studies exist for pupils and not pupils for them.

There will be general approval of the Committee of Ten's declaration that secondary schools are not primarily for the preparation of students to pass special examinations for college admission. Instead, their chief purpose should be to prepare girls and boys for the duties of life. The Committee was direct in the statement that the preparation of students for colleges and scientific schools should be for the average secondary school an incidental and not the main object, but the report recognizes the logical deduction from this fact and passes on to say: "It is obviously desirable that the college and the scientific school should be accessible to all boys or girls who have completed creditably the secondary school course." If this were not

true, then early in the life of the child his educational future, probable destination, and sphere in life are fixed for him and fixed in an accidental and arbitrary manner without taking his own traits and predilections into consideration. There can be no gainsaying that any successful graduate of a secondary school should be eligible for studies in our higher institutions of learning "no matter what group of subjects he may have mainly devoted himself to in the secondary schools."

This was the doctrine of the Committee of Ten's report and by this doctrine we should stand. The natural outcome of the acceptance of this course is to make our vocational schools and courses of true educational worth equal in time and corresponding in the demands which they make with the other forms of secondary education.

Education may set for itself such ideals as the cultivation of intellectual power, and, what is more difficult, the acquisition of the ability to apply power to the matter in hand. If our curricula were made in accordance with these principles, the training of secondary schools will render the double service of making subjects of instruction more practical, and practical affairs more intellectual. We have long had two educational ideals that have existed side by side, but have not intermingled; these are the academic and the apprenticeship. The former earlier gave scholasticism, the classical school; the latter, utilitarianism in education, the workshop. But the old division of studies into educational but not useful, and useful but not educational, is fast disappearing. The useful is found to be intellectual, and much that was hitherto thought to have educational interest only has been shown to have increasing usefulness. At present, three sets of interests at least make demands upon the secondary schools. These are professional or literary, industrial, and commercial. If the demands of these are rationally met and if high schools are properly co-ordinated with the elementary school on the one hand and the universities on the other, we shall have realized somewhat Huxley's ideal of an educational ladder reaching from the primary school to the university. Let this ladder be wide enough to accommodate all who want to ascend it, and let the meaning and the probable rewards of ascent be such that a larger number will want to go up. Practical schools and courses will add to the

number who go through the secondary schools, and this in turn may be made the means of increasing the number who go to higher institutions.

THE OBLIGATION OF THE COLLEGE

The college cannot afford to be an institution apart from the modern school. Our present United States Commissioner of Education has emphasized the thought that our secondary education is indigenous, an expression of the social life of the American people. The number and character of secondary schools is a reflex of our civilization; public high schools are peculiarly the institutions of the people. In several senses these schools are middle schools, but most important they are the meeting place for various classes of our democratic society. Here classes may mingle and learn each of the other.

Certain fundamentals are coming to pass almost by common consent in our educational creed. One of these is that the school is one form of activity in the present social order—society expressing itself in a given way; and another that it is the business of the school to induct men into institutional life, not of the remote past, but of the present. This means of course that we are to treasure and stimulate interest in our historic civilization, but the latter is not the sole, not indeed the chief, purpose of education. More than any other institution the college has set itself aside from modern society both in its own work and in the requirements it fixes for admission. In consequence the college is losing its opportunity to render the largest service both in preserving the traditions of culture and in leavening the whole lump of modern society.

With certain rather cynical remarks made of late that we do not need more students going to college, that there may be too many now taking the higher education, etc., we should have little patience. Of purposeless educational diletanteism we cannot have too little, and this is one of the results of the traditional college entrance test and a higher education that leads nowhither; of that definite education that relates the training given and the life to be led we cannot have too much, and this is the result of the vocational aims of education. The college owes a debt to society that up to this time it has come far short of paying; more narrowly the college owes some-

thing by way of recognition and inspiration to the secondary institutions that seek to serve community needs. The college owes recognition to that boy or girl who after worthily completing the studies of the vocational school asks for the privilege of further education.

When colleges and universities widen their system of credits or entrance requirements, and touch the schools at more points, the questions of dealing justly with the vocational schools and their students will settle itself. As the instruction within the university is modernized, it becomes easier to recognize modern subjects in the secondary schools. Would not a proper course for the higher institutions be, not to refuse to consider the newer subjects of the vocational school, but by rigid insistence on meritorious work in them help to make these subjects of greater value to those who do and to those who do not wish to go to college?

But of all things most to be desired, let those in the schools escape from the bugaboo of getting into college in a particular way. The boy fitted for getting into life ought not to be thereby incapacitated for getting into college, and if he is, there is something wrong with the college requirements. First let there be schools giving real education—classical, English, manual training, and commercial, and then let the colleges welcome students from any and all of these schools. It is manifestly unfair to compel all students to take a special course for college admission when a small portion go to college; it would be just as unfair to deny college admission to those who have not taken the required course, but who find that at the close of their high-school work that they have the inclination to go to college and that a way has opened for them to do so.

II EDUCATION VERSUS COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

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DUTY OF THE COLLEGE TO THE STATE

Democracy has not yet revealed its full meaning. The grounds of the democratic faith lie too deep to be patent: with every fresh study of them comes new insight into their profundity, and with every attempted application a new conception of their logical effects. We have recently seen the insurance companies taught the lesson of democratic responsibility; the railroads and the packers are studying the same text; and it would seem that holders of colossal fortunes may soon be forced to think carefully about the nature of private property in a democratic society. "Mutualization" is a sign of the times, pointing into untraveled depths of democratic theory.

Education is not exempt from this new activity of republican thought. A highly suggestive study of republican principles bases them upon a conception of man as a free spiritual agent, whose true life is in his main spiritual relations.¹ Among many consequences, dimly seen, of such a conception, there is one, at least, which will be clear to the educator; a democratic society owes to each of the individuals which compose it *all* the education, and *that sort* of education for which as a free spiritual agent in the relation of citizen he has the capacity and the need. This deduction, familiar to many of us as it may be, is far enough from the popular idea of the educational duty of the democratic state to prove that democracy has revelations yet in store.

But in America the democratic faith is strong. Self-government has proved to be only a primary duty. We early inaugurated elementary education, free to all and for all alike the best obtainable.

¹ Joseph Lee, *Charity and Democracy*, *Charities and the Commons*, xvii, 9, Dec. '06, p. 392.

The free public high school is now firmly established, and public sentiment is quick to support the new schools designed to meet special educational needs. Some states offer free collegiate courses, including, besides traditional liberal culture, professional training of university grade. The democratic faith, strongest in educators, may yet lead us to demand of every commonwealth the fulfillment of its whole educational duty;—free higher education, both general and vocational, may yet be universally offered. Be this as it may—it would lead us far afield were we to discuss all that the state may here properly undertake—we may with some confidence appeal to the educator as democrat in favor of a thesis concerning the admission requirements of the college in a democracy. For the educator as democrat will at least recognize the responsibility of the college to the community. He may not be ready to argue for free university instruction, much less for free law schools, but he will admit that the college, like the railroad and the insurance company, should serve the whole public fairly and without respect to persons. He will agree that the college should try to meet every reasonable need of the community it serves. He will agree that it should be quick to recognize a worthy educational demand. In the light of this responsibility to the community, the contention we shall here maintain will not seem overdrawn: college requirements must not operate to debar from higher education any class which has received a secondary education adequate in its grade as a preparation for citizenship.

DUTY OF THE COLLEGE TO THE INDIVIDUAL

But education is Janus-faced; it looks both to the state and to the individual. Not only has the college a responsibility to the community; it has also a responsibility to the possible pre-collegiate instruction of every educable person. To education as a vital personal process that is, the college owes a duty. The college must guard the American principle of equality of opportunity. Class education is rightly, in America, abhorrent. We say to the humblest, "What is open to any, shall be open to you." We have gone far towards providing, at public expense, for the poorest, all that the richest can buy. In this light, college entrance examinations should not be a gate to which only the elect are given the key, but should rather

be a ladder, which all who are strong enough may climb. For education cannot properly be represented by any closed series of parts; it is not properly divisible into one kind which ends at 14, another which ends at 18, and another which ends at 22. The German idea of a kind of schooling, complete at a certain stage, to which each member of a class is foredoomed, is forever impossible in America. We hold education to be an open sea, upon which everyone may sail as far as the winds of his fortune will carry him; or, we look upon it, rather, as a single vital process, the whole virtue of which is the birthright of every citizen. It may be that he will be forced to sell it for a mess of pottage; but in any case it must not be denied him, even in part, while he is still ready to accept it. The whole process, let us note, is his birthright; if he has passed to proper purpose through one stage of it, the next should lie ready to his efforts. As teachers, surely, we should be loth to narrow the path of the pupil, to obstruct it, to turn it whither the pupil can not travel while he has still the will to go forward, or to exact of him a toll he is not able to pay. Once more, from the point of view of the responsibility of the college for the previous training of the individual: college requirements must not operate to debar from higher education any individual who has received a secondary education adequate in its grade to his needs as a man.

INFLUENCE OF THE COLLEGES UPON THE SCHOOLS

Of course we have not the temerity to imply that those who frame college entrance requirements are unmindful of the responsibilities upon which we have dwelt. There seems, indeed, to be a general willingness on the part of the colleges to acknowledge their influence upon secondary school programs. In the conscious exercise of this influence the college authorities no doubt set before themselves the dual ideal of service to the whole community and of guardianship over the integrity of the educational process. So long as there was but one kind of secondary education, the problem was simple enough; but with the introduction of the elective principle complications arose in abundance. Now we have before us the spectacle of secondary schools of special vocational character and of general high schools whose programs are divided into courses constructed to meet special needs,—an ever increasing number of verti-

cal divisions (if the figure may be permitted) of secondary education. It is not this sort of division, of course, against which we have just been contending. College requirements have not created the special schools; they have not drawn the "vertical" lines of cleavage. But the special schools are here, and the college problem is no longer simple.

Fortunately, we shall not here be obliged to take sides upon the exact issue of our problem of electives; enough for the moment if we state our belief in the general principle of education according to needs. We are quite ready to agree that this vertical division should not be carried too far, that it should be guarded by consideration of the interests of the community on the one hand, and of the integrity of the educational process on the other; but if vertical divisions are thus carefully made, we cannot admit that the "horizontal" bar should be raised by external influence upon any of them. The dead stop upon the educational path of any pupil should be raised only at the limit of his capacity. But just here comes in the practical question. If college requirements do not accord with the training supplied in the vocational schools then the training in these schools is educationally a path into the desert. If colleges will not provide for the continuance of vocational education, they stop that education at eighteen. If vocational schools are not recognized, then our "vertical" division has in effect a "horizontal" bar placed upon it by the colleges. The problem of admission requirements can no longer be settled by preparing examinations in the classics and in mathematics.

ATTITUDE OF THE COLLEGE TOWARD THE VOCATIONAL SCHOOL

Our premises, of course, remain to be proved. It may be that we do not supply in our special schools a training adequate as a preparation for citizenship; it may be that our training is too narrow for the needs of the individual as a man, as a free spiritual agent. Let not this obscure the point in question. We assert that our training is thus adequate, upon both counts. The colleges must meet us upon our own ground. If a college will confess that it accepts only intending divinity students, it may narrow its requirements as it pleases, with injury only to itself and to the divinity students. But if a college pretends to supply higher education of a

liberal character; if it is prepared to send its graduates into every activity of modern life; if it is, in short, a true American college; then it must fit its requirements to every proper function of American secondary education. Its requirements then become an authoritative definition of the functions of secondary education. If it will not accept graduates of vocational schools, it asserts that our training is class training. We reply that the refusal of the college to accept graduates of certain forms of high schools convicts the college itself of class training. Either these schools are too narrow, or the college is. If we claim for pupils of the vocational schools the right to continue their studies in college, the colleges cannot deny them that right by reason of special requirements for admission, without taking a stand against our form of secondary education.

Let us suppose, for example, that a graduate of the Boston High School of Commerce finds that he cannot enter X college. What is he to think? He may believe that his training has not been adequate in its grade as a preparation for citizenship. In this case, the college is guarding the democracy against a class of citizens which, without proper preparation, would yet enter the life of the community under the authority of the college degree. The college must discourage an unjustified pretension to adequate training for the great relation of citizenship. Or, our graduate may believe that his training has not been adequate to his needs as a man. In this case, the college is guarding the integrity of education as a vital personal process. It must not admit to the opportunity of higher education a pupil who has not received a training for manhood. Or, our supposed graduate may take the other point of view. He may believe that the college wishes to serve the needs of only a single class in the community; he may look upon its narrow requirements as evidence that the college will not recognize all reasonable demands, from whatever class; he may feel that the college is forgetting its duty to a democratic society. He may believe, moreover, that the college refuses to recognize a worthy function of secondary education; that it casts a stigma upon a form of secondary training which has supplied in its grade all his needs as a man, as well as some of his needs as a worker; he may feel that the college is forgetting its duty to him as an individual. This is the issue.

AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

To support our graduate in one opinion or the other, let us ask ourselves first what the functions of secondary education are. Upon this point, let us admit, we can here do little but present our convictions as clearly and convincingly as possible, and state our authorities. If the exposition is attacked, the argument will demand volumes. For the present we must content ourselves with a broad, firm confession of faith. First, then, we accept Herbert Spencer's working definition of education as preparation for complete living. Following Professor Hanus of Harvard University, we define preparation as participation, and complete living as usefulness and happiness. Under the same authority² we define the special function of the secondary school as "comprising three classes of aims: namely, vocational aims, social aims, and culture aims." A modern secondary school should graduate pupils who can, *first*, earn their own livings; *second*, discharge their duties as citizens; *third*, participate in the refined pleasures of modern life. If there are other aims of secondary education which cannot be brought within the scope of this statement, we do not know of them. We believe that every widely accepted, *practical* formulation of the aims of secondary schools in America is implicit in this one. Philosophical refinements upon these conceptions may of course be made; but in the practical outcome we may rest our case upon these grounds. The youth whose training has been dominated by these aims has laid a foundation for usefulness and happiness.

Two phases of education as we have defined it may attract attention. It is presented as a training for *active* life, and as a training for *modern* life. Let it not be supposed, however, that we are pleading for a commercial ideal. The activities of modern life are legion. We are not attempting to formulate a philosophy of commercial secondary education any more than a philosophy of classical secondary education. Both can find an appropriate place under our definitions; we ask only the same grace for both and an equally cordial welcome at the college doors. For to us, it seems obvious that the classical school is as much a special school as the school of commerce or the school of mechanic arts. We would make the powers

² *A Modern School*, by Paul H. Hanus, Macmillan Co.: 1904, p. 16.

of the pupil "subservient to life's serious purposes," among which the purposes of the scholar rank high. But they are special purposes, comparable to those of the business man or those of the engineer. We applaud classical training as a preparation for divinity, for the law, or for other special activities in which it may be applied. But we deny that it is the sole form of liberal training; we deny, indeed, that in itself it is a form of liberal training at all. Neither do we contend that any form of vocational education is, as such, a form of liberal training. Any form of secondary instruction may at least lay the foundation of a liberal education, if it adequately subserves the three essential aims of a modern school. For these aims include both a liberal aspect of education and a special aspect of education. No man can be useful unless he is master of some form of activity in the life of his day. He cannot be prepared to earn his living, nor to serve the state, nor to participate in the refined pleasures of life, unless he is in some degree a specialist. He must have his own field to till; his own point of vantage; the ground, longed for of old by Archimedes, from which to move the world. Neither can he be truly an educated man without the liberal form of training. He may earn his own living, but he cannot be of wide usefulness, nor find high sources of happiness in life, unless he has laid the foundations of general culture. In our devotion to this ideal of general culture, we do not yield, despite our special aim, to the advocate of any form of secondary training whatsoever.

For practical purposes, then, we may say that the triple aim of secondary education may be subserved by putting into effect these two general aspects—the aspect of mastery in a serious activity of modern life, and the aspect of liberal culture. It would profit us little to enter now into a theoretic consideration of the exact relation of these aspects to vocational, social, and culture aims, or to the ideals of usefulness and of happiness. Those aims must dominate, those ideals must permeate, the work of a school which consciously endeavors to give effect to these two aspects of secondary education. The teachers in such a school will feel constantly the pressure of a double duty, that of preparing their pupils to do something well and to enter intelligently and helpfully into the life of their day. There is no hint here of the old ideal of cultured leisure, the *diagoge*

of the Greeks. A modern school prepares its pupils for active, modern life. But it does not disregard the ideal of general culture.

What, then, is general culture? It is the capacity to understand, appreciate, and react upon the resources and problems of modern civilization.³ If anyone will have it that general culture is something else or something more than this, from him we must part company. We have made our confession of faith. The development of this capacity is the foundation aspect of secondary education as the vocational schools endeavor to supply it. With the other aspect, the mastery aspect, it completes secondary education as we believe the colleges should recognize it. If any school will put these two aspects of secondary education into effect, we claim for its graduates the right to go forward into the field of higher education without let or hindrance.

HOW THE AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION SHALL BE REALIZED

To compass the application of these principles, what must the secondary school attempt? It must attempt three things. *First*, it must lay the foundations of general culture by giving to the pupil a thorough acquaintance with (a) the kinds of data, (b) the mental processes involved, (c) the ideals presented, and (d) the applications possible in *all the distinct main branches* of modern knowledge. In this provision we are contending for the foundation aspect of secondary education. We may as well at once confess, as later it will become apparent, that we do not hold any specific subject—unless the Mother Tongue be such—as essential to liberal culture. If any substantial scientific subject, for instance, is properly taught, it will give to the pupil the necessary acquaintance with the kind of data, the mental processes, the ideals and the applications involved in scientific study. Nor will our list of specific subjects include a subject, such as common geography, which comes properly within the field of elementary education; nor one, such as comparative philology, which is beyond the grasp of high school pupils. But, *second*, it must not waste the pupils' time in work which is not carried far enough to yield the acquaintance we have postulated as desirable; nor must it carry special work so far as to exclude acquaintance with any "great branch." Yet, *third*, it must offer to each pupil the opportunity to carry to a reasonable point of mastery

³ Hanus, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

that special branch in which lie his dominant interests and powers. It can be seen that in thus giving effect to the two aspects of secondary education, that of foundation and that of mastery, the secondary school is fulfilling our conception of its particular function. Vocational, social, and culture aims are subserved; usefulness and happiness may be founded upon a training thus planned. No essential purpose of education, in other words, is ignored. We are willing, therefore, to present these principles as our educational *Institutio*. Upon it we profess to base our educational conduct. If our courses of study are the just application of our philosophy, the colleges must accept our graduates, or confound us in our heresies.

EFFECT OF COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS ON THE CHOICE OF HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS

But the effect of any philosophy may be perverted by practical misjudgments as to means. It is in the influence of college requirements upon the actual choice of secondary subjects that we find our grievance. How should our doctrines be applied; what actual application do we ask the colleges to meet? If the college authorities hold the formal discipline theory, their requirements would of course not fit our training. For it is hard to see how an acquaintance with all the main branches of knowledge can be gained from a study of a single, specific subject or groups of subjects, or how the dominant interests and powers of every pupil can be turned to account in a system which recognizes no mastery but mastery in the classics or in mathematics. It is like trying to get the varied virtue of a seven-course dinner by eating a great deal of the fillet of beef. But we must part company with the formal disciplinarians without further argument. We cannot accept their dogma as a basis for a rational system of secondary instruction. What virtue we find in it we shall be glad to acknowledge, but we hope that its advocates grow ever fewer and fewer.

Other college influences upon the choice of secondary studies we must hold to be equally fatal, if based upon a less pernicious doctrine. There are sins of omission as well as sins of commission. College authorities may frame their requirements without regard to three principles which may be easily deduced from our theory of secondary training. *First*, they may not require examinations in every branch

essential to the foundation aspect of culture. *Second*, they may not offer advanced examinations in subjects in which many pupils may reasonably specialize. *Third*, they may attach such importance to the examinations in a single subject as to make it stand, improperly, on a level with the main branches of knowledge.

EIGHT DIVISIONS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS

These main branches of knowledge are, in our opinion, to be classified as follows: *first*, ENGLISH, including both composition and literature; *second*, FOREIGN LANGUAGES, both ancient and modern; *third*, NATURAL SCIENCE; *fourth*, POLITICAL and SOCIAL SCIENCE, including civics, descriptive economics, and commercial subjects; *fifth*, MATHEMATICS; *sixth*, HISTORY; *seventh*, ART; *eighth*, MANUAL TRAINING, including mechanical drawing and shop-work. By means of instruction in these branches we would give effect to our dual ideal of secondary education. They form the field of secondary education as we would at present bound it.

In the light of our dual ideal it can be seen that any particular subject included under one of these branches can be used to effect either of two purposes. It can be taught as a means to general culture, or it can be taught as offering a reasonable field for the activity of a pupil's dominant powers. According to the view of any particular subject adopted by the college, an examination in that subject should either be offered, or required. But we must here repeat that we hold general culture to be embodied not in knowledge of specific subjects, but in an acquaintance with the characteristics of each of the great departments of knowledge. The only specific subject, therefore, which we would willingly require in college entrance examinations or demand of all secondary schools is English. The reasons for this exception are obvious. Another possible exception may be made in favor of Algebra and Plane Geometry. If these specific subjects are required, it must be upon the ground that in them, and in them only, the essential character of pure mathematics can be displayed to beginners. But we would require, not an examination in physics, but the presentation of a certain amount of science. In Foreign Languages we would require a definite amount of Latin or Greek or French or German or Spanish. The equivalence between the amount prescribed in Latin and that prescribed in

German is not here at issue. The principle for which we contend is that of choice. Language, not Latin, should be required. We commit ourselves, therefore, to this opinion: The influence of college requirements is against liberal culture when a test in a specific subject is required in place of an option designed to test the familiarity of the candidate with the elements of a general department of knowledge. It follows that we cannot condemn any secondary school as illiberal on the ground that it does not present this or that specific subject.

Certain qualifying views may now be presented. We would add to our list Physical Training, and would grant to its advocates the possibility that in time the colleges may find it necessary to subject every candidate to a physical examination. We should be glad to see more rational and more searching requirements in this subject adopted in all secondary schools. We should not now advocate, on the other hand, any requirement in Manual Training nor in Art. The elements of these branches should be presented in the primary and grammar schools. High-school instruction in them we are now inclined to place in the category of special instruction, in which any pupil may reasonably choose to exercise his dominant powers; as subjects to be offered under the mastery aspect of secondary education they may therefore be pursued as far as the pupil can go consistently with his acquirement of liberal culture. The college should consequently offer, but not require, examinations in reasonably advanced forms of Manual Training and of Art. This leads us without further discussion to the proposition that the college should offer (not require) advanced examinations in any specific subjects which may reasonably be taught under the mastery aspect of secondary education.

TEST OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES

We have now attempted to present certain principles upon which the college should determine what subjects to require and what to offer. These we have based upon our theory of secondary education. The question of the relative weight to be given to various subjects remains to be treated. In this matter we have a partial concession to make to the formal disciplinarians. The relative educational value of different subjects may be determined upon

four grounds. *First*, a subject may have value because its data can be put to practical use. This sort of value attaches to the multiplication table, and to the data of many vocational subjects. Considered apart from other values it is not of the greatest educational importance. But it is to be noted that it does not vitiate other values; indeed, when combined with them it should add weight to the subject. *Second*, a subject may have value for the ideals it presents. If the pursuit of such subjects as literature and history inculcate sound ethical and aesthetic judgments, strengthen high moral incentives, and exercise the power of moral insight, those subjects are of supreme importance. This sort of value should therefore be taken into account in determining the weight of specific examinations. But this sort of value is hard to convey and harder to test in examination. *Third*, a subject may have conventional value. As we do not wish to be made conspicuous by peculiarities of dress, so we do not wish to be conspicuous because we do not know when Shakespeare lived or who discovered the laws of motion. This sort of value should neither be ignored nor overestimated. *Fourth*, a subject may be of value because it exercises vigorously all the powers its data call into play. This may be called the work-value of a subject. Latin, for instance, exercises the powers called forth by linguistic data to a greater extent than does French. Algebra calls for greater exercise of the power to handle abstract values than does Arithmetic. Chemistry exercises certain powers of observation; History, certain powers of generalization. So much let us grant to the formal disciplinarians; so much, but not more. We see only what we are trained to see. The powers of observation trained in Chemistry will not help us to observe stock-quotations, nor to notice delicate shades in human character. Power to deal with Latin roots will not help us to decide the artistic significance of Mr. Whistler's portrait of Carlyle, nor to frame a judgment upon the taking of rebates. Latin, therefore, may be given greater weight upon this count than French, but cannot be thus compared with Drawing or with Economics. All four of these values should therefore be taken into consideration in determining the weight to be attached to a given subject. But as between different groups of subjects—as between History, let us say, and Mathematics—it is obvious that the fourth sort of value will play a smaller part in

determining relative weights. For History and Mathematics exercise the intellectual powers in very different ways. A great deal of Mathematics, or a little very hard Mathematics will not increase in the pupil the power to deal with historical data nor strengthen in him ethical judgments. The second sort of value must here come into strong play. The scope, kind, strength, and permanence of the *incentives* to activity, and the kind, degree, and permanence of the *power* to think and to execute have been stated by Professor Hanus as the factors in this sort of a problem in values.⁴ We fear that in some college decisions these factors have had no effect; the product seems to be the result of multiplying x of work-value by x cube of conventional value.

FAIR REQUIREMENT FOR ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE

What now is the specific outcome of these general principles? It can be presented under two heads. *First*, to hold the secondary school to its duty of supplying a foundation for liberal culture, we would have the college require each candidate to present (1) English, (2) a Foreign Language, ancient or modern, (3) a prescribed amount of Natural Science, (4) a prescribed amount of Political Science, (5) Algebra and Plane Geometry, (6) a prescribed amount of History. It will be noticed that we have prescribed no specific subjects except English and Elementary Mathematics. In the latter case we give the subject the benefit of a doubt which we are frank to confess. But we feel that it cannot then be maintained that a candidate who can satisfy his examiners on the points we have specified has missed the foundations of general culture. How much language, it may be asked, do you advocate? Upon so specific an application all that can be presented is a personal judgment. Under the general principle that enough should be required to assure to the pupil at least the full work-value of every subject, by which we may be certain that he knows the character of the data involved, we should stipulate for Latin, through Caesar; for Greek, through Xenophon; for a modern language, both the elementary and the intermediate examinations, if not the advanced. In Natural Science, we should stipulate Elementary Physics, or

⁴ *Educational Aims and Educational Values*, by P. H. Hanus, Macmillan Co.: 1900, pp. 7.

Elementary Chemistry, or two other elementary sciences. Under this head it may further be noted that the college is called upon to offer examinations of elementary grade in every subject which can properly be studied in a secondary school. In the Political Science field, for instance, there should be a minimum requirement, and additional aspects of the subject as optional. We cannot here review the arguments for these subjects (they are ably presented by President Edmund J. James in the annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences for November, 1897); but it must be clear that a youth unacquainted with the nature of economic data has missed modern culture. Until the instruction in this field has been more clearly formulated it would be difficult for one not an economist to be more definite; but even to the laymen it is obvious that something should be done. The college requirements should cover every specific subject in which a student may properly present himself in satisfaction of the general requirement of liberal culture. *Second*, the college should offer an advanced examination in every subject in which the student may reasonably specialize in the six fields enumerated above and in the two additional fields of Manual Training and of Art. Reasonable specialization has been defined as specialization which does not interfere with the acquirement of general culture. Essentially, this is a question for the individual. The college must strike a fair balance. It seems to us that the traditional requirement in Vergil is all that can be compassed by way of proper specialization in Latin. In modern languages, the usual advanced examination, made somewhat more severe, is all that can be asked. In Natural Science, we should expect to find advanced Physics. Advanced Chemistry seems to be somewhat beyond the possibilities of most secondary schools. Considerations of expediency are not, of course, within the scope of an argument of this kind; we can demand of neither school nor college what it would gladly do, but for lack of means cannot.

NATURE OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

There is now one further consideration. Of what *kind* shall college examinations be? It has been laid down by the Committee of Ten that "every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to

every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease." President Eliot has defended this proposition⁵ so ably that one is with difficulty forced to admit that he disagrees with the affirmation of a body so authoritative with an advocate so distinguished. A solution of the difficulty may yet be found. At present, however, the point at issue may be illustrated as follows: We wish to give to the students in our commercial high schools a practical knowledge, let us say, of German. We wish to train them to speak the language. In so doing, we do not intend to ignore German literature; we wish, indeed, to have them read as much German literature as we have time for, provided such reading does not prevent us from teaching our pupils to *talk everyday German*. We cannot afford to send them out with a vocabulary composed mainly of poetic forms. It follows, of course, that we cannot teach only Heine, Schiller, and Goethe. But if the colleges insist upon the literary aspect of the language, our pupils are placed at a disadvantage. Very likely they could pass the examination, after a fashion. But that is not the point. The Latin School pupils, without half our allowance for German, could pass it more easily. Is our German not as valuable as theirs? Does it not give our pupils all the virtue of German as a language? We have seen the matter through green glasses; they have seen it through blue. It is so throughout the list. We have taught Physics with an eye to its commercial applications; not superficially, we trust, but as those who would prepare for life by participating in it. What, then, is to be done? As special pleaders, we must advocate a form of examination which tests with exactness the candidate's grasp of the principles involved in the subject, but which does not require him to have a special knowledge of purely academic applications of it. Let us hasten to deny that we wish to avoid getting the full *educational* value out of every subject: we want its work value and its value as conveyor of ideals; but as between a practical value and a conventional value we ask to be given credit for choosing the former.

⁵ *Educational Review*, xxx, 4, Nov. 1905, p. 325.

EFFECT OF COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS ON HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING

We have now tried to make a broad application of our philosophy of secondary education and to indicate the way in which we believe the colleges should meet us. Let it not be supposed that we think the problems of secondary education settled, or capable of being settled. It may be that experience will prove that Manual Training is an indispensable element of general culture or that Algebra is not essential. Experience must be our final court of appeal. But we hold that the college which still insists upon Latin, Greek, and Mathematics as the *sine qua non* of admission is not helping the secondary school to work out its salvation and may possibly be blind to its own. For the college cannot afford to wait until instruction in secondary economics (for instance) is efficient before it puts that subject upon its list of elective examinations. If it will put the subject on the list and set a searching examination in it, good instruction will be forthcoming, and with good instruction the value of the subject as an educational agent is immediately increased. If a college will not train teachers, it may at least create a demand for good teaching.

PRESENT PRACTICE IN COLLEGE ADMISSION

In spite of the fact that we do not profess a well-defined opinion upon every specific problem within the range of this discussion, it will be interesting to note how the present, actual state of college requirements squares with the principles in which we have confessed our belief. The writer has made a study of the entrance requirements of twenty colleges, the results of which he here with some diffidence presents. The colleges selected represent every section of the country except the South; they include all the great universities of the East and West, a number of state universities and several so-called small colleges. Anyone who is at all familiar with college catalogues must surmise that the data gathered form something of a labyrinth. We shall try to make our conclusions clear and we trust we have avoided large inaccuracies. Let it be said by way of explanation that the requirements of these twenty colleges for all general courses have been tabulated, whether those requirements were for general admission, or for a general degree, such as the

A.B., B.S., Lit.B., or Ph.B. Requirements for special courses, such as the courses for engineers, or for teachers, were not tabulated. Requirements for courses in commerce were found to correspond very nearly to requirements for the B.S. degree, but divergences were noted. For the sake of clearness and brevity, however, a single, general tendency with regard to each subject is all that is here presented. This may in every case be taken to represent the most liberal policy with regard to the subject in question. In one university, for instance, advanced Latin is required for admission to the course in Arts, but is alternative with a modern language plus solid Geometry and Trigonometry for the course in Science and for the course in Business. In this case we have counted the university among the number which do not specifically require advanced Latin. For the points in which we are now interested are these: first, to what extent is the subject offered for admission to general courses; second, is there a tendency to require it for admission, either specifically or with an option? We are not for the moment interested so much in the possibility of graduating our pupils into a particular college or into a particular course, as we are in the general effect of college entrance requirements upon the several subjects offered in secondary schools.

It should require but a glance at the figures in the accompanying tables to prove that the ideals for which we have been contending are not universally held by college authorities. The tendency, we are glad to note, seems to be away from hard and fast requirements towards options within a single field. This is a step towards the attainment of the ideal of general culture in secondary schools. But in so far as that ideal depends upon a *wide* offering of elementary subjects, the figures for Manual Training, for Music, for minor scientific subjects and for economic subjects may be instanced as dubious. And the mastery aspect of secondary education receives none too vigorous encouragement: witness, the figures for advanced Physics and for advanced History. The only form of mastery universally recognized is that of mastery (secondary school mastery) in the classics.

The tables presented on pages 37 to 39 show in compact form the present practices in admitting students to college.

TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGES—20

Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was Specifically Required	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was on the Free Elective List	Number of Colleges not Offering any Examination in the Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was One of a Group in Which an Option Was Offered Remarks
ENGLISH	20	<i>Two</i> colleges require composition and offer Literature. One offers Advanced Literature
LANGUAGES Ancient Latin Elementary	8	4	..	<i>Eight</i> colleges offer an option in Languages, with a tendency to give Elementary Latin no more weight than Elementary French
Latin Advanced	6	5	..	<i>Nine</i> colleges make Advanced Latin optional. It is rated higher than Advanced Greek but no higher than Advanced German
Greek Elementary	3	6	..	<i>Eleven</i> colleges make Elementary Greek optional, usually with Latin, or with an equivalent combination chosen from Latin, French, and German
Greek Advanced	2	7	..	<i>Eleven</i>
Modern German Elementary	2	4	..	<i>Fourteen.</i> The option is usually wide, but is in at least three cases limited to choice between German and an ancient language
German Advanced	..	7	2	<i>Eleven</i>
French Elementary	2	4	..	<i>Fourteen</i>
French Advanced	..	7	2	<i>Eleven</i>
Spanish Elementary	..	3	16	<i>One</i>
Spanish Advanced	..	1	19	
NATURAL SCIENCE Physics Elementary	5	4	2	<i>Nine</i> colleges offer an option between Physics and Chemistry or between Physics or an equivalent amount from other scientific subjects
Physics Advanced	..	2	18	

TABLE—Continued

Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was Specifically Required	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was on the Free Elective List	Number of Colleges not Offering any Examination in the Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was One of a Group in Which an Option Was Offered—Remark:
Chemistry Elementary	1	7	3	<i>Nine.</i> The tendency is to rank Physics and Chemistry as equivalent, and Botany, Zoology, Physiography, etc., as each worth half the value of Physics
Biology	..	3	12	<i>Five.</i> Some colleges offer Biology; some separate examinations in Botany and Zoology; some both
Botany	..	6	8	<i>Six</i>
Zoology	..	6	9	<i>Five</i>
Geology	..	2	17	<i>One</i>
Astronomy	..	4	15	<i>One</i>
Meteorology	..	1	10	
Physiography	..	7	7	<i>Six</i>
Physiology, Anatomy and Hygiene	..	3	13	<i>Four</i>
Psychology	..	1	10	
POLITICAL SCIENCE Civics	..	4	13	<i>Three.</i> Civil Government of the United States is often included with the requirements in U. S. History
Economics	..	3	16	<i>One.</i> Political Science is here made optional with History or Manual Training
MATHEMATICS Algebra Elementary	18	1	..	<i>One.</i> With other Mathematics
Algebra Advanced	1	4	8	<i>Seven.</i> With other Mathematics
Geometry Plane	18	1	..	<i>One.</i> With other Mathematics
Geometry Solid	9	6	..	<i>Five.</i> With other Mathematics
Trigonometry	1	6	6	<i>Seven.</i> With other Mathematics

TABLE—Continued

Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was Specifically Required	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject Was on the Free Elective List	Number of Colleges not Offering any Examination in the Subject	Number of Colleges in Which the Subject was One of a Group in Which an Option Was Offered	Remarks
Analytical Geometry	19		<i>One.</i> Made part of a heavy substitute for Greek, elementary and advanced
HISTORY Elementary	16	4	..		Either Greek, Roman, English, American, Mediaeval and Modern European, or a combination
Advanced	..	9	10		<i>One.</i> Advanced History seems usually to mean merely <i>more</i> history
MANUAL TRAINING	..	3	16		<i>One.</i> With History and Political Economy. Includes various specific subjects as wood-working and blacksmithing
ART Drawing	..	7	13		Freehand and Mechanical
Music Elementary	..	2	18		Harmony
Music Advanced	..	1	19		Counterpoint

EVILS OF THE PRESENT PRACTICE

Have we here found the reason for two real evils in our secondary education? Let us state them for your corroboration from your own experience, and with the statement leave our argument in your hands. We hold the college requirements responsible, namely, for the presence in Latin schools of pupils who never should be in them, who are not fitted for that special form of secondary training. And we hold the college requirements responsible also for the converse condition,—the social stigma (mild if you like, but real) upon the boys in the Manual Training and Commercial High Schools. The harm in one case is educational; in the other, social. But it is done, and will be done, until that happy time when no one who will and who can take it shall be prevented from proving his fitness for higher education.

III

VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

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TIMELINESS OF THIS DISCUSSION

The present is certainly a most opportune time for this discussion. A few years ago the general scheme of college entrance requirements seemed pretty well defined. Today we are awakening to our ignorance and are open to suggestions from all quarters. The growing recognition of music as a proper subject for entrance examinations is evidence in point. It may be that in this particular case the recognition was not wholly wise; that the cause of American music has far less to gain thereby than its friends have hoped; that preparatory music is likely to be to an even greater extent a fiasco than preparatory English has been. But it is enough for us to note that the recognition has been asked and given, and that collegiate authorities have in so far expressed their willingness to accept, for matriculation, subjects that are far removed from the lines of the traditional requirements. We may, therefore, attack the various questions connected with our subject without feeling that they have been answered for us in advance.

AN APPARENT INCONSISTENCY—ITS SOURCES

We note, at the outset, a certain apparent inconsistency in the demands of those who are urging the recognition of these new subjects. On the one hand, they are unreserved in declaring that the secondary school should not be degraded into a mere preparatory school; that it has a work of its own well worth doing for its own sake, without regard to the small percentage of students who afterwards go to college; that every stage of the educational process should be directed with a view to the present actual development of the pupil, and not with a constant squint at the supposed require-

ments of a future stage. Such phrases as "preparatory English" and "preparatory mathematics" are therefore resented. The work of the high school is felt to be no more preparatory to that of the college, than the work of the college is to that of the professional school. On the other hand, while thus asserting the independence of the secondary school, they are just as outspoken in the conviction that the colleges ought to accept the newer school-studies for a generous part of their entrance requirements—that is to say, that these studies also ought to be made "preparatory" subjects and thus be placed beneath the patronage and somewhat dictatory control of the collegiate authorities.

This apparent contradiction seems to have a twofold origin, partly in matter-of-fact and partly in educational theory. The fact of the matter is that the secondary school is in certain important respects essentially a preparatory school. The abrupt discontinuity of its work with that of the lower grades, and the intimate connection with that of the college freshman and sophomore years, are ample historical evidence of this. The high school has gotten its curriculum from above, not from below—and not only its curriculum but its ideals, its measures of value, its standards of accuracy and effectiveness. However small the proportion of boys who go to college, it is what is expected from these few that tends to set the mark for the rest; and wherever this work is departed from, it is almost invariably by a descent. Furthermore, the recent great improvement in secondary education throughout the country has been largely due to demands from above. The colleges were bravely struggling to rise, and because they could not rise alone they had to persuade the middle schools to follow them in the ascent.

I. HIGH SCHOOLS AS PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

For these reasons and in these respects, our high schools are essentially preparatory schools. To be sure, their growth would have been impossible without local support, and this support would not have been given if the people of the towns and villages had not felt the need of something more than an elementary education for their children. The extraordinary development of the high school system of California, with a minimum of state encouragement and without a particle of state financial aid, well illustrates this feeling.

In a village of fifteen hundred inhabitants, with, say, a thousand more within a circle of five miles radius, I have there seen a high school of one hundred twenty-five pupils—one in twenty of the total population; meaning that almost every boy and girl of proper age was in the school. It was not a rich community, and the high school tax was a fearful burden. The salaries of the four teachers ranged from one hundred twenty-five to seventy-five dollars per month. Surely that school was entitled to a large measure of self-respect and self-dependence. But an examination of its curriculum showed that it was entirely modeled upon the entrance requirements of the University of California; and the proud boast of the school was that it had been fully accredited by the university examiners. Situated as it was in the southernmost county of the state, this school had a course of study that was as nearly as possible like those of the San Francisco and Oakland high schools. No single study had any marked relation to the peculiar needs arising in such an environment. Thus, although the school was supported by an earnest public sentiment, its whole character was fixed, the direction of all its endeavors was determined, by extraneous influences. For very few of its graduates could ever hope to go to college.

The instance which I have cited is simply an extreme type, to which hundreds of others are no doubt closely parallel. It may serve to exemplify the fact that the American high school, as at present generally constituted, stands for nothing except an aspiration; that its curriculum is not an organic whole, but a conglomerate of what the colleges have found it possible or convenient to pass down to it; that it represents no actual social need; and that the public which supports it must, therefore, to a considerable extent, judge of its efficiency simply by its success in preparing students for college.

This is not the place to take account of the various more or less successful efforts which are being made to remedy this condition of affairs. Our present concern is with the facts as they are, and with the sort of public sentiment that they have occasioned. It is, I think, not difficult to see why collegiate recognition of a high school subject is felt to be so overwhelmingly important. It confers a badge of respectability, a title to public consideration and support.

EXCEPTIONAL POSITION OF THE VOCATIONAL STUDIES

It must, however, have occurred to the reader, that what we have been saying cannot pass without exceptions—notably music and the vocational studies. Of these it is conspicuously true, that they *do* stand in a very immediate relation to actual social needs, and that the public has a very swift and tolerably sure means of estimating the skill with which they are taught. Logically speaking, therefore, these studies have not the same need of collegiate recognition as most of the others. But sentiment does not always run in logical channels. When the sentiment has once been established, that the study which leads to college is more estimable than the one which does not, both teachers and students in the latter line must suffer from the general impression that the work they are doing is either nonessential or even of distinctly inferior grade. Needless to say, however, thoroughly good work in subjects which have an immediate and visible relation to social welfare cannot long remain without public recognition of their importance. In spite, therefore, of all possible prejudice against them, the vocational studies are not in any desperate need of the honor of being accepted for college entrance credits—though it is easy to see why the honor should be desired for them.

II. CLAIM OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS TO INDEPENDENCE

I undertook to give two reasons for the seemingly contradictory demands of the advocates of these vocational studies; on the one hand that secondary instruction be organized primarily for its own ends and not as a mere preparatory course; and on the other hand that the colleges accept the work thus organized as adequate preparation for their own work. A few of the facts bearing on the matter have now been briefly noted, and it remains to take account of the part which has been played by certain current educational theories. And here one is tempted to smile at the swift irony of fate, which has turned one of the firmest dogmas of recent conservatism into a war-cry of the new liberalism. A dozen years ago the conviction prevailed that the best preparatory course constituted at the same time the best possible secondary education for those who could go no farther; and school administrators were advised to use

this as a principle of economy—for which purpose, indeed, it was admirably suited. But today the maxim is simply converted, so as to read: The best secondary education, considered in itself, is likewise the best preparation for any further education that may chance to follow it.

From the point of view of formal logic, the meaning of the proposition is unchanged; but its implications are none the less radically transformed. For, in the first place, it is implied, that the practical experience of the school man is to be given precedence in its own domain, over the college man's theories as to what he has a right to expect from youth. This means the conferring of a dignity and responsibility upon the high school teacher that makes his office as worthy as any in the whole realm of education. And, in the second place, the converted proposition implies that the judgment of the experienced school man shall be accepted at its face value by the colleges, the only check put upon that judgment being the actual collegiate record of the students received from the schoolmaster's hands.

If the new maxim is still a lie, it is, at any rate, a truer lie than the old one. It ought to be true. Give the high schools freedom from politics and a relatively permanent and truly professional personnel, and there is no reason why it should not be true. From this point of view, the apparent contradiction which we have previously noted is easily explained. That the school men should demand at once independence and recognition is not intrinsically absurd.

VOCATIONAL STUDIES NOT EXCLUDED BY COLLEGE PREPARATION

But both the old maxim and the new are open to very obvious criticism upon other grounds. For secondary education, or even the best secondary education, is not an unambiguous term. The college has its own definite work to do, and that work presumably requires a certain amount of more or less definite preparation. On the one hand, the college is not the only institution for which the secondary school may prepare. It may prepare for the farm, the shop, the draughting-room, the office, or for various technical schools of higher grade; and the definite prerequisites for these various spheres of work are by no means identical. The assertion, then, that the best secondary education is at the same time the best

preparation for college, requires for its validity the proviso that the prerequisites for college work have not been slighted.

A candid examination of the premises, however, shows that this objection has not all the pertinence that might be supposed. Let us take the entrance requirements of the Literary Department of the University of Michigan as an example. The first feature that strikes our attention is the slenderness of these requirements. They amount to only fifteen units—that is to say, three recitations a day throughout the four years of the high school course; while good high schools commonly require four recitations a day, and, under conditions of overpressure, this number is frequently raised to five. The high school can thus easily accomplish far more than is required; and the superfluous energy may be devoted either to enabling their graduates to enter college with advance credit, or to giving them a more diversified secondary education. At the same time, the weaker schools find it a sufficient task to cover the allotted ground. After the meagerness of the requirements, we are, in the second place, struck by their indefiniteness. Only seven units (English, algebra and geometry, and physics) are definitely prescribed. Two years' study of a language (which must not be Greek) are also required. The remaining six units are freely elective from a considerable range of topics—history, ancient and modern languages, and various natural sciences. Thus the student may enter college without any history, or without a working knowledge of any language, or without any natural science other than physics. Furthermore, of the subjects actually prescribed, it is to be noted, that some forty per cent of the matriculants make no further use of more than a petty fraction of the mathematics they have acquired, that the same is true of physics, and that the preparatory English is so confessedly a failure that the one required course in the college is elementary rhetoric.

Like most unpolished facts these cut in various directions. On the one hand, they further minimize the necessity of giving entrance credits for work in vocational subjects. The well organized high school can easily, if its administrators so desire, devote four or five periods a week to such studies throughout the entire course, and still contrive to meet the college entrance requirements. Even a distinctly commercial or industrial school is likely to turn out men

who with a summer's coaching, can make up the necessary number of credits for matriculation. On the other hand, if the proposed innovation is thus seen not to be imperatively called for, the burden of proof is somewhat lightened for those who would prove it to be feasible. For all that they need to show is that the studies in question possess such culture value as to warrant their displacing other elective subjects (Greek, history, or biology, for example) in the early stages of a liberal education. Putting the two conclusions together, we may say that the proposed measure is not one of relief for the high schools, but of strictly collegiate policy, the sole question arising for discussion being whether it is in the interest of the college thus to encourage that sort of training in its matriculants.

Even this question is sufficiently complicated. We might be tempted to throw it aside with the remark, that no doubt different institutions, subject to different conditions, would probably have to settle it differently. That is no doubt true, as it is always true of questions of policy. There are, however, some general principles involved, which seem to me worthy of a brief consideration in this place.

RECOGNIZED VALUE OF THE VOCATIONAL STUDIES

The old antithesis of "liberal" and "vocational" is one that can no longer be maintained by students of education. It had its origin in a false—that is to say, impermanent—conception of the relation between work and leisure, which rested, in turn, upon an equally false conception of the essential distinctions between classes of men. It was Aristotle—the same observer who held that some men were born to be masters, and some to be slaves—that first gave clear expression to the sentiment, that, though leisure and business are both necessary, the former is altogether the more worthy both in itself and as an educational aim. Time, which is so much wiser than any single observer, has shown that the ennoblement of leisure is impossible without an equal ennoblement of business—that any attempt at the former apart from the latter is bound to issue either in a wretched dilettanteism or an almost equally contemptible "polite learning." The education that trains for work may be as truly liberal—i. e., tending to make a man free in body and soul—as an education which provides for the decent employment of leisure; and it can

descend to no depths of illiberality beyond those to which the latter has often sunk.

THEIR CHARACTERISTIC DEFECT

In discussing, therefore, the advisability of allowing matriculation credits for work in vocational studies, we may, I think, take it for granted that such studies are capable of affording a very high degree of culture. This need not blind us to the fact that they are liable to characteristic weaknesses. A useful end does not make a study illiberal, but a sentiment, that nothing is to be learned which does not have a direct bearing upon the end in view, most decidedly does; and such a sentiment is apt to be roused in young minds by an exclusive emphasis upon the specific practical applications of knowledge. Technology is every whit as worthy an object of study as science; but a course in any branch of technology, which does not presuppose a thorough grounding in the subsidiary pure sciences is likely to be a sorry sham. That is why, for example, textbooks in pedagogical psychology are so wretchedly poor, whenever they do not take for granted a previous schooling in general psychology. The same is true of the relation of instrumental drawing to geometry, and of agriculture to chemistry, botany, and entomology. If educational experience has proved anything, it has proved this,—that if science is to be studied to any real advantage, it must be studied first of all for its own sake—or *as if* for its own sake; that is to say, impartially, with breadth of view, and with an eye not simply to “practical” details but to the general principles which comprehend and explain the details. To attempt to plunder a science of just what is needed for a particular purpose, is to doom oneself to failure. Again, in the conduct of the technical instruction itself, it is important, both from the educational and the practical point of view, that the main emphasis be placed, not upon the convenient empirical formulae that can be applied without much critical thought, to the more common emergencies of every-day experience, but upon the reasons for the formulae. That is why in the training of teachers—to speak of the profession that is best known to most of us—the pedagogy of methods and devices has had to be supplemented, or even to be replaced, by the history and theory of education. That by following an opposite course, technical education

sacrifices its own highest ends is, I say, unquestionable; but it is its besetting sin. If, therefore, entrance credits were allowed in vocational subjects, the college might well observe with especial care the spirit in which the instruction was carried on—whether mere skill was aimed at or something more.

RELATION OF THE COLLEGE TO VOCATIONAL STUDY

There is this further consideration that may in many cases militate against the advisability of the proposed measure. The college itself gives no direct preparation for any vocation, except, somewhat anomalously, for that of the teacher and that of the consulting chemist. It does, however, aim at providing a general training in the sciences and humanities, such as will serve as a basis for the future acquirement of the arts both of business and of leisure. In other words, the college stands for a lengthened adolescence, the ultimate object of which is to ensure a more fully ripened manhood. As such, it presents a marked contrast to the various technical schools of the university, which introduce their students to vocational studies as promptly as possible after receiving them from the preparatory schools. Now the commercial and industrial high schools stand for an exactly opposite principle—the need of fitting vast numbers of boys and girls for the business of life, with all convenient speed. A lengthened youth is a luxury which all cannot afford; and even the technical school of college grade is beyond the reach of the great majority. These high schools have thus a work to do which yields to no other in social importance; but it is a work that is designed not as preparatory, but as supplementary, to the work of the college. The boy who enters a commercial high school, for example, does not do so with the intention of afterwards going to college; but he enters it just because he lacks either the means or the ambition of going to college, and wishes to be fitted for a position as promptly as possible. To be sure, he may afterwards change his mind, and determine to go to college at any cost. But in that case the few slight obstacles in his path will not seriously deter him.

It must not be forgotten, that the first two years of the college course are, as a usual thing, more closely connected with the classical, literary, or scientific course of the high school than with the last two years of the college course itself. This is tacitly recognized

in some colleges, by the very different requirements imposed upon students during the first two and during the last two years; it is openly proclaimed in others; and even where it is formally denied, the changing character of the instruction attests the fact. If we mean by a secondary education *such an introduction to the general elements of the various branches of modern culture as is necessary to prepare the student for intelligent specialization*, then our high schools and academics certainly do not cover the ground. That used to be the task of the college, but it now accomplishes something more than this. Before the student completes his undergraduate course, he is able, under proper guidance, to do a certain amount of really intensive work. But that is not during the first two years. These years really belong to secondary education; and if either the problem of the requirements for the bachelor's degree, or the problem of college entrance requirements is to be intelligently solved, they must be treated together, and treated with a full consciousness both of the twofold character of college work and of the relative continuity of the high school period and the freshman and sophomore years. Thus the proposal to accept work in vocational lines for college entrance is closely parallel to a proposition to permit college freshmen and sophomores to elect a certain amount of work in affiliated technical schools. This, too, is by no means an inherently ridiculous proposition, but it is worth noting that the drift of university sentiment is against it. Thus, for example, in the various "compound" courses that have recently been organized, entitling the graduate to two degrees—the literary-law, for instance—the technical work is not usually begun until after two years of strictly academic work. So, also, the departments of pedagogy do not usually receive pupils before the junior year. The same motives would presumably apply with even greater force to the requirements for the preparatory course.

RELATION OF THE PRESENT PROBLEM TO THAT OF THE BACCALAUREATE DEGREE

I said just above that the college entrance problem was really inseparable from that of the baccalaureate degree. With this principle in mind, let us refer once more to the University of Michigan entrance requirements. Attention has already been called to their very limited

significance, and the fact was used as an argument for the recognition of vocational subjects—if so little is essential, why not let these subjects, as well as any others, go to make up the meaningless total? It is quite possible, however, that some doubt may have been raised in the reader's mind, as to the wisdom of these requirements; and I dare say that if they represented a permanent condition of affairs very serious criticism would have to be passed upon them. But nothing is more obvious than that they represent a transition in the relations between school and college, a provisional compromise between various interests whose proper equilibrium has not yet been reached. For these entrance requirements must be understood in connection with the system of free election which has been established in the college; they had to be made as indefinite as possible in order that the student might be able to proceed in all possible directions thereafter.

It is noteworthy, that after the enthusiasm with which the elective system was adopted by the leading colleges of the country, a reaction has recently set in against it. It seems not likely that the system will be altogether abandoned anywhere, but modifications and limitations of a corrective character have in many quarters been adopted or at least prominently advocated. Thus the College of Arts and Sciences of Cornell University has recently adopted regulations which limit in various ways the student's choice of about one-third of the units required for graduation; the faculty, however, remaining "loyal to the principle of the election of studies." (President's Report, 1905-1906, p. 26.) It has been felt that the students need guidance—and, indeed, none have felt this more keenly than the students themselves. Ask any college senior, and he will tell you that the elective system is no doubt the best in itself, in that it offers the greatest opportunities of self-improvement to the student; but that the average freshman or sophomore does not know his own needs or intentions well enough to make a wise use of his opportunities.

To the student of education, certain observations upon this whole movement and counter-movement are now beginning to be fairly obvious. First, the colleges of the country are fairly committed to the free elective system; without it they cannot fulfill the functions which have grown upon them. Secondly, the limita-

tions upon free election which have been generally proposed are wholly inadequate to correct the undoubted weaknesses of the system. If the regulations are made rigid enough to ensure the interests of the majority, they at once become oppressive to an important minority. If they are so light as to encumber no one, then they serve to curtail only the grossest and most obvious abuses. Thirdly, the students entering college are not prepared to take proper advantage of the elective system. That requires, for one thing, an appreciation of the correlation of studies, such as the freshman can scarcely be expected to have. Fourthly—and this I conceive to be the heart of the whole matter—the adoption of the elective system by the colleges logically implies a far more extensive preparation than is now anywhere exacted, or than can be exacted from high schools with their present four years' course.

In a word, the college of the future must have behind it high schools offering a well-rounded and adequate secondary education. Such a course would itself provide for a considerable amount of election; but its requirements would assure an introduction to all the chief departments of intellectual culture—let us say, languages and literature; history and political economy; mathematics; physics, chemistry, biology, and geology; and psychology. In such a scheme, certain important vocational studies would assuredly hold an honored place; if not as a part of the requirements—for many students might profitably postpone that sort of work till a later period—then as urgently recommended electives. For it is not to be denied that these studies have a peculiar moral value, quite as estimable in its way as the scholar's devotion to pure science—a moral value which is shown in the habits of manly endeavor which they not uncommonly induce.

To a school offering a course of this character, the problem of college matriculation credits would be of very little concern. The colleges would accept its graduates as unquestioningly as they now receive students from each other or from reputable normal schools. And in its own community it would be a wonderful civilizing power. It would do for immense numbers what the college of a generation ago did for the comparatively few, and do it much better. That this is what the American high school is coming to, we can now scarcely doubt. The advanced credits which the better organized schools

are now able to secure for their graduates who enter college are but an indication of the drift of things. The lopping off of old and useless excrescences from the work of the elementary school would save at least a year, and very possibly two years, for the lengthened high school course; and the better articulation of the work of the lower and middle schools may mean almost as great a gain, if not in time, then in efficiency. The problem in this regard, as it today confronts us, is almost purely one of administrative detail.

Thus I feel sure that the advocates of the present measure are certain to gain their real end in the not distant future, not through the recognition of vocational studies by the colleges, but as they have gained similar ends in the past—through the development of the high schools themselves.

CONCLUSION

As matters stand, however, I do not see that this particular measure is to be very widely recommended. Some colleges, no doubt, will find it to their advantage to allow the desired entrance credits; but in general there appears to be very little occasion for the innovation, and very little good to be derived from it. Three classes of high school students would be affected. First, there would be those who elected these studies without intending to follow the vocations to which they led, but who hoped for an easier or more congenial method of getting into college. Such students might or might not be disappointed; but in either case they would almost certainly fail of the discipline of the vocational studies, in addition to losing that of the theoretical studies. At any rate, these young ladies and gentlemen could have no very large claims upon our consideration. Secondly, there would be those who intended eventually to make use of what they had learned, but to go to college first. In their case, the presumption would be that the vocational studies might better be postponed until a more adequate theoretical basis had been obtained. Exceptions would occur, but I doubt whether legislative provision ought to be made for these. Thirdly, there would be those who originally hoped for nothing better than to get a position when they graduated, but who later on found the means, or awoke to the ambition, of going to college.

Such students would, of course, be helped by the proposed measure; but as previously intimated, the obstacles which they have at present to overcome are not serious.

And when we deliberately face the question which was announced above—whether the vocational studies possess a culture value that warrants their displacing such subjects as history or biology in the earlier stages of a liberal education—we must, I think, answer it in the negative. If there were time for all things, we should not have to choose; but in so far as the time is limited we feel that the theoretical subjects should take precedence. To put the proposition in naked terms, that in education all the theoretical should precede all the practical, is to commit an evident absurdity and to invite obvious criticism. But it must not be forgotten, in the first place, that, so far as the moral discipline of contact with the fundamental economic problems of life is concerned, fate kindly provides that for a goodly number of our students—their life is not all one of pure theory; and, in the second place, that the entrance requirements as they stand are not so high as altogether to preclude a certain amount of voluntary vocational work in the high school. Taking all things into consideration, I for one feel driven to the conclusion, that for the high school boy or girl who is to go to college, it is more important to lay a broad foundation of theoretical knowledge that shall serve as a basis for his future general civic usefulness, than to devote himself at once to the direct preparation for a vocation. Great as is the value of the vocational subjects, I cannot regard it as equivalent—for such persons, at such a period—to that of the purely theoretical subjects. They will have time hereafter to learn to better advantage the practice of their vocation.

IV

VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

"Shall vocational studies be accepted for entrance to college?" Before entering upon a discussion of the question it seems necessary to define "College" as the educational institution which confers upon its graduates the first bachelor's degree--A.B., B.S., or Ph.D. By vocational studies we mean those studies, which, either by their very nature or because of the point of view from which they are taught, tend to prepare directly for specific efficiency in handicraft, business, or profession. For example, manual training and freehand and mechanical drawing for the trades; commercial geography, history of commerce, history of the United States with especial reference to industrial aspects, commercial law, banking, and finance, and industrial chemistry for the various commercial pursuits.

The question under discussion, then, is: Shall those studies which prepare directly for specific efficiency in handicrafts, commerce, and profession be accepted for entrance to those collegiate courses at the close of which the first academic degree is granted?

WHAT COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS SIGNIFY

A study of the history of the enlargement of the college entrance requirements during the past two centuries fails to reveal the fact that subjects have in the past been placed on the list for college entrance because of their definite relation to the understood function of the college. New studies have frequently been tried in the secondary schools and because they have there proved their efficiency and because the schools have been insistent in their demands they have finally been accepted by the colleges. As early as the year 1800 our academies taught English grammar, geography,

algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, astronomy, music, composition, logic, but our colleges introduced these subjects at a later date. On the other hand, certain studies have been imposed by the colleges upon the schools as subjects proper for the preparation for college work. But there seems to have been no underlying principle which has determined the question of proper preparation for college.

Commissioner of Education Brown in "The Making of Our Middle Schools" says, "the idea of liberal culture was the dominant note of both academy and college education in the nineteenth century." This idea of liberal culture perhaps determined then more largely than any other educational procedure during the nineteenth century. The twentieth century will by no means give up this idea of liberal culture, but it bids fair to add the ideas of efficiency and service as influential factors in educational procedure.

If liberal culture, efficiency, and service are the educational ideas to guide us it behooves us to question seriously whether the college entrance requirements of today permit the secondary schools to train in the broadest way for culture, efficiency, and service. It has become more or less a custom for us to look to Harvard University for leadership in educational matters. The Harvard College entrance requirements today render it impossible for the graduates of our best manual training and commercial high schools to gain admission and yet who will claim that such graduates are less well trained than the graduates of our preparatory courses? It may be claimed that these graduates may enter the scientific schools, but this is not our contention. Is there any good reason why a graduate of one of our best secondary schools should be denied admission to the course leading to the bachelor's degree?

In other words, what do the college entrance requirements signify? What do our colleges want in the way of maturity, knowledge, and training in order that a young man may pursue college courses with profit? It seems to the writer that the college entrance requirements as stated in the announcements of our great educational institutions are but symbols of the training and maturity required for the pursuit of college courses. Harvard College practically requires a minimum of seven studies for entrance but permits no freshman to pursue seven studies at one time. Moreover not one of the subjects required for entrance, except English, is required

in any of the years of the college course. In other words the subjects required for entrance are not considered primarily as preparatory to the pursuit of the same studies in college. Hence we must conclude that the college demands of those desiring to enter its courses a certain modicum of knowledge of a number of subjects and more than this it demands a certain degree of maturity, a habit of work, and a facility in mental application.

Now, I presume, no one would claim that Harvard's list of options includes all those subjects the pursuit of which may give the maturity, the habit of work, and facility in mental application demanded. On the other hand, this list might reasonably be criticized as being somewhat one-sided. The schools are endeavoring to train in their students the power of self-expression and by no means limit the effort to training in verbal expression. Through the work in music power of tonal expression is developed; through freehand and mechanical drawing the power of graphic expression is developed; through the various lines of shop work the power of constructive expression is developed. In other words, our schools are trying to develop the complete power of self-expression.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS AT PRESENT ARE ONE-SIDED

Few of our colleges require more than the power of verbal expression as measured by the requirements for admission, and in this respect the tests for admission are one-sided. Dean Woodward of Washington University says, "The requirements for entering upon college or university work should be general fitness and not familiarity with a particular subject; general strength to undertake new work in a new field." It is evident then that our list of subjects which may be presented for college entrance might be somewhat broadened.

But what does the college demand of a subject before it is accepted as an entrance requirement?

1. It shall possess sufficient content;
2. It shall be systematic;
3. It shall be well taught;
4. It shall be both informational and disciplinary.

The secondary school makes the same demands of all studies admitted to its program of studies but in addition demands that

subjects shall bear some relation to the environment of students and shall train for efficiency. Why is Greek practically relegated to the University as a subject of study? It certainly fulfils the fourfold requirement of the college—it has sufficient content, is systematic, is well taught, and is both informational and disciplinary, but it relates only slightly to environment and does but little in fitting its devotees for service and efficiency. Hence, it is gradually disappearing from the program of study of secondary schools.

The closer articulation of school and college seems to demand that the college shall enlarge its scheme of requirements so as to include those subjects which do train for efficiency and service. The most characteristic weakness in the subjects ordinarily required for entrance to college is the entire absence of application to things and affairs of daily life; e. g., our geometry and algebra as taught are pure abstractions and the student finishes these subjects with little or no appreciation of their practical applications. The vocational studies, on the other hand, are in their very nature practical and bear the most practical relations to the life about us.

PRESENT LIMITED RECOGNITION OF VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

There is at present great diversity among our colleges in permitting certain vocational studies to be offered for entrance. Harvard College permits drawing and music; Leland Stanford, drawing, music, manual training; University of Missouri, drawing; Columbia, music, drawing, manual training. Unfortunately our women's colleges are least progressive in enlarging the scheme of entrance requirements. So far as the writer has been able to discover no woman's college accepts either domestic science or domestic art as an entrance subject. Our secondary schools throughout the country are in agreement in admitting manual training, drawing, music, and commercial branches to their program of study. Our secondary schools have proved beyond doubt the value of these vocational studies as elements in the training of boys and girls. Since our schools are in agreement as to the value of vocational studies and since some colleges already accept these studies for entrance it is only a question of time when any graduate of one of our best secondary schools will find it possible to enter any college of the land on the subjects he has studied in his secondary school.

It was in the days of Timothy Dwight, the elder, that natural science was looked upon as perhaps a valuable subject of study for some students but by no means necessary for the student preparing for college. But natural science was admitted to the program of study in secondary schools and having proved its value was eventually required for college entrance. The attitude toward the vocational studies is similar to that toward natural science in the days of Dwight. One by one subjects which have proved their efficiency have been accepted for admission by the colleges. Our colleges must eventually accept for admission any subject which has proved itself worthy as an element in training boys and girls of the secondary school. Judgment may differ as to what certain studies do accomplish; it may take years to secure agreement as to educational values, for there is no necessity for haste in educational procedure, but eventually our higher institutions will be compelled to accept those subjects which in the judgment of secondary-school teachers, school officials and parents have proved their efficiency in training for service and life in the community.

Believing that the testimony of men actively interested in schools giving training in vocational lines would be of value in this discussion a note of inquiry brought forth many interesting and valuable statements. In reply to the inquiry, "Do you consider the graduates of your school capable of pursuing with profit a college course leading to the bachelor's degree?" the following testimony was received from representative headmasters. Principal Frank Rollins, The Stuyvesant High School, New York City: "I am very glad to say that a considerable number of our boys are planning to take such courses and I am confident that they will do college work with profit." Mr. C. W. Permenter, headmaster of the Mechanic Arts High School, Boston, Mass.: "Many graduates of the Mechanic Arts High School make a creditable record in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard University. There is no good reason for thinking that many of these men would not pursue successfully courses leading to the degree of A.B., if such courses were open to them." Mr. William L. Sayre, principal of the Central Manual Training High School in Philadelphia, says: "The graduates of this school are admitted on their diploma to the college departments of the Uni-

versity of Pennsylvania, Lehigh University, Lafayette College, and (with the exception of English) Cornell University. Their records in these institutions show that they stand shoulder to shoulder with graduates from other high schools and that in many cases take high honors. I have reason to believe therefore that our graduates could successfully take up college courses leading to a bachelor's degree." Such testimony at least shows that school men have confidence in the kind of training afforded by vocational studies as fitting for college entrance.

ENLARGED USEFULNESS OF THE COLLEGE AND HOW REALIZED

Colleges no longer exist primarily for the training of leaders. The increase in attendance at our degree-granting institutions has been enormous in the last quarter of a century. Our college clientele is no longer such a carefully selected lot of young men and women. The class of people who were a generation ago satisfied with secondary-school training for their children are today seeking collegiate training for their sons and daughters. The next twenty-five years will witness a continuance of this enlargement of attendance at our higher institutions, if our colleges meet the demands the public will surely make upon them; and the public will demand more and more a training suited to those who are not destined either by nature or environment for the traditional professions.

For too long a time our schools made provisions only for what psychologists describe as "men (boys or girls) of thought." Boys and girls of "feeling" and "action" have been the problems in the school. But today our schools are meeting the needs of all three types.

Our college entrance requirements, however, still test the boys and girls too largely on one side—thought. The future will demand more and more that college opportunities shall be open to the "feeling" and "action" type of boy and girl as well as to the "thought" type. And in order that such may be the case credit will be given by the college to the value of the so-called vocational studies pursued in the secondary schools. Our country seems destined to become a country of college-trained men and women.

If my statement that the college exists no longer simply for the training of a select few but rather for the upbuilding of the masses

of our population; if my statement that certain vocational studies—drawing, music, manual training, cooking, sewing, commercial geography, history of commerce, industrial chemistry, commercial law—have proved their efficiency in the training of boys and girls of secondary-school age; if my statement that the college must eventually accept for admission those subjects which have proved their worth in the secondary schools; if these three statements are correct, then what credit shall the college assign to each of these subjects in the general scheme of requirements? How shall the balance be struck between the vocational studies and the traditional subjects required by the colleges? (On the Harvard basis of twenty-six points for entrance it would seem a fair thing to assign credits as follows:

Shop work (four years)	4 points
Freehand drawing	2 points
Industrial history of the United States.....	2 points
Commercial geography	2 points
Domestic science	2 points
Domestic art	2 points

The above list is simply suggestive as indicating the proper method of procedure in striking the balance between the traditional college entrance subjects and the vocational studies.

When our colleges accept for entrance subjects which have proved their worth in the secondary schools, then will our schools cease to be mere "fitting schools" and the best thought of school men will be given to a consideration of the training best suited to boys and girls of secondary-school age.

V

COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDITS FOR VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

W. J. S. BRYAN
Principal Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.

INTRODUCTION—THE SITUATION

The importance of thorough preparation of applicants for admission to college is not questioned by any observant teacher of a secondary school. Experience has taught that lack of preparation is not only discouraging to the ill-prepared student who attempts to do advanced work, but detrimental to others who are obliged to work with him; some of their time is spent unprofitably and his development is hindered if not wholly prevented. The success of class instruction depends upon proper grading. Not to recognize this fact, not to secure proper conditions in this respect, is to invite failure.

The growing insistence of schools of medicine and law upon adequate preparation of applicants shows plainly the present trend of educational thought in this direction. The demand for uniform college entrance requirements heard on all sides has arisen not from criticism of existing requirements, but from the desire to satisfactorily prepare applicants for admission to all colleges by a course of instruction acceptable to all rather than by many courses respectively satisfactory to each.

The diversity of requirements has resulted from local conditions and special emphasis laid by different colleges upon certain subjects or topics deemed of peculiar importance by these colleges, and it has been perpetuated by the isolation of the colleges from each other and from the great number of public high schools which have come into existence in the development of the public system and have framed their courses of study to meet the needs of the children of the public schools and to articulate closely with the work already done by them.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ITS RELATION TO ELEMENTARY AND HIGHER

There have been two points of departure in educational matters, the primary school and the college. The college demanded preparation for entrance and created the preparatory school. The stability of our form of government, the development of natural resources, and the growth of manufactures and commerce requiring directive intelligence necessitated the extension of the course of public instruction beyond the primary grades, and the high schools were multiplied.

The establishment of state universities at the end of the course of public education had as its logical presupposition the articulation of primary and higher institutions through the medium of the secondary schools. It is for the primary school to receive the children from the home and to train them to reasonable proficiency in elementary subjects. For this training eight years have been found requisite under ordinary conditions. The high school receives the children at this stage of their development and carries their education forward for a period of four years, disclosing to the responsive mind the various lines of human endeavor and achievement. It is for the college to further train such young men and women as have made good use of their twelve preparatory years and have shown by the work done that they can profitably undertake more advanced work. There should be no chasm between the college and the four-year high school with adequate equipment and thorough instruction.

DETERMINATION OF STANDARDS FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

The state universities in the earlier days of their establishment because of the necessity of articulation with existing high schools of low standard have been obliged to modify their requirements of admission, but this condition is undesirable and calls for speedy amendment by increased efficiency of high schools. And such has been the history of the changing relation between high schools and state universities everywhere, a record of provisional articulation resulting from temporary adjustment of needs to attainment, with reasonable increase of demands from year to year on the part of the state university and steady increase of efficiency of high schools to meet these reasonable requirements.

Just what subjects should be required for entrance is an unsettled question and must remain so until education becomes a science and all phases and processes are completely understood. Some institutions still adhere very closely to original positions, others have modified their demands to suit changed conditions. The fact that is most potent for change is the increase in the number of those who desire to attend college without any intention of following a profession, who recognize the value of college training for leadership in any line of service, and have become convinced that higher education is profitable for both material and spiritual things, for both living and making a living. This deserved recognition and practical commendation of the work of the higher institutions is one of the most encouraging signs of the growth in intelligence of individuals and communities; but this increased attendance of men and women with widely diverging plans and conceptions will no doubt have a tendency to change ideas as to the course of study to be furnished before and after entrance, in preparation and in participation.

The evolution of a science of education will be conditioned by the determination of the effect upon the development of the mind of each study pursued or proposed. Too long teachers have worked in the dark as to the nature of the minds to be developed and as to their reaction upon the subjects of study. They have taught language, mathematics, history, science, rather than boys and girls, young men and young women, through these media.

Scientific pedagogy has for its condition precedent the scientific observation and recording of the mental phenomena resulting from the study of the various subjects of the curricula. Little has been done in this direction. Diligent search fails to discover such records of observations made by competent observers under suitable conditions. There are teachers of every subject taught who have a reasonably thorough and comprehensive knowledge of it and are successful in imparting instruction to those they strive to teach, but there are few consciously scientific teachers who are aware of the possibilities and are working steadily and confidently toward expected educational result.

In recent years educators have begun to recognize the importance of a study of childhood and youth, that the process of development and the natural sequence of the phases of growth may be noted

and may receive the consideration necessary to secure the best results in education. Next in order should come the careful investigation of the effects the study of each subject produces under given conditions upon the evolution of the individual. When this has been ascertained it will be possible to frame with assurance courses of study that will prepare for useful, satisfying lives.

The widening of the field of education through the enrichment of the courses pursued has resulted from changes in the needs and requirements of youth as individuals living in a growing civilization. Recognizing the changes in the environment of young men and women, educators have sought to prepare them to meet existing conditions and to improve the opportunities offered.

PRESENT STATUS OF VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE-ENTRANCE CREDIT

Wisely conservative and unwilling to jeopardize the interests of those committed to them, teachers of youth have made innovations only when they were convinced of their pedagogic value. Thus the sciences forced their way into the curricula of the schools and higher institutions until they were given full recognition and approval. Thus also manual training has received recognition and the vocational subjects such as commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, commercial law, commercial geography, and commercial history are asking consideration.

An examination of the catalogues of twenty state universities of the central, northern, and western states and of an equal number of endowed colleges shows that of the entire list only five allow any credit for commercial arithmetic; five, for bookkeeping; two, for stenography; two, for typewriting; three, for commercial law; three for commercial geography; one, for history of commerce. Of the same list of higher institutions eleven mention manual training among the subjects that may be offered in satisfaction of entrance requirements.

Of the colleges and universities that offer higher commercial courses, as far as I have been able to ascertain, not one accepts any vocational subjects for entrance or recognizes these subjects in its admission requirements.

If these subjects are to be recognized as affording training for

subsequent work in higher institutions, evidently it will have to be demonstrated that they are equivalent in disciplinary power to some of the subjects already included in the list of those that may be offered in satisfaction of entrance requirements. They will have to do what the sciences have done, namely, prove their fitness as preparatory subjects for the development of intellectual power to profitably pursue advanced work in college and university.

WHAT CREDIT-VALUE SHOULD BE ASSIGNED VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS?

On the supposition that vocational subjects have educational values, what would be a reasonably proportionate allowance in a scheme of entrance requirements in view of the values assigned to the several subjects now included in the list of those accepted by the various universities and colleges? Taking the universities of Harvard, Dartmouth, Chicago, Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio as typical and averaging the percentage of entrance requirements that may and must be furnished by various lines of study, I find that

English may furnish 20%, must furnish 20%

History may furnish 20%, must furnish —

Mathematics may furnish 25%, must furnish 20%

Languages may furnish 40%, must furnish 15%

Science may furnish 30%, must furnish —

There is practical uniformity in the valuation of English and mathematics. History varies from 0% to 13% as a required subject and from 14% to 27% as an elective subject. Science varies from 0% to 13% as a required subject and from 10% to 50% as an elective. Foreign languages vary from 0% to 20% as required subjects and from 27% to 53% as electives.

The number of periods spent on vocational subjects, estimating the periods given to bookkeeping and typewriting as laboratory periods would suggest $\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 credit for bookkeeping, 1 credit for stenography and typewriting, $\frac{1}{2}$ credit for commercial law, $\frac{1}{2}$ credit for commercial geography, $\frac{1}{2}$ credit for history of commerce, in all 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ credits, if one credit represents 180–200 periods of work requiring preparation.

If the high schools of St. Louis may be taken as a norm, the vocational subjects occupy 1500 periods out of 4400 periods or 1140

periods out of 4040 periods. The four-year commercial course consists of

- 800 periods of English,
- 300 periods of history,
- 600 periods of science,
- 400 periods of mathematics,
- 400 periods of foreign language,
- 400 additional periods of a foreign language or of drawing,
- 100 periods of civil government,
- 100 periods of economics,
- 120 periods of penmanship,
- 80 periods of business arithmetic,
- 300 periods of bookkeeping,
- 300 periods of stenography,
- 300 periods of typewriting,
- 100 periods of commercial law,
- 100 periods of commercial geography,

in all 4400 periods of work, of which 1500 periods are given to vocational subjects, or 1140 periods out of 4040 periods, if book-keeping, penmanship, and typewriting are estimated as subjects that do not require preparation.

The work in the commercial course not vocational would entitle the graduate to

- 4 credits for English,
- 2 credits for language,
- 2 additional credits for language or
- 1 credit for drawing,
- 2 credits for mathematics,
- 1 credit for history,
- 3 credits for science,

nearly enough credits for admission to most colleges.

The vocational subjects take the time which in the college scientific course is given to other subjects, namely science, 200 periods; mathematics, 480 periods; language, 600 periods; history, 100 periods; for which six credits ordinarily would be allowed.

Work in civics and economics is frequently accorded $\frac{1}{2}$ credit

for each subject. The work in commercial geography and history of commerce would seem very similar to work done in history in which the commercial development of various countries receives considerable attention. The work in penmanship presumably no one would expect to be given credit and that in commercial arithmetic would hardly be considered apart from bookkeeping in which it finds its application.

It remains to consider the claims of bookkeeping, stenography, and typewriting.

Bookkeeping is essential to business transactions of which it is the record, but it does not require or develop a high order of power. Its principles are few and once mastered are not difficult of application. The system and accuracy demanded are valuable acquisitions and the classification of each transaction trains the power of judgment within certain narrow limits. It is doubtful, however, whether the time spent upon it could not be better employed were it not for its practical value. If the salaries paid for such services are an index of the estimation of the business world of the grade of ability requisite, its rank is not high.

Stenography as a system of symbols for the rapid recording of speech and thought has extensive practical use. Moreover, its demands upon the intelligence of the user cultivate alertness and quickness of apprehension and call into exercise power of concentration and attention; while, the transcription of stenographic notes exercises the memory and trains in comprehension and expression of thought. Nevertheless, were it not for the facility its mastery affords, I should question the wisdom of devoting to its study the time required for its acquisition.

Apart from stenography, typewriting would be only a form of manual dexterity. Memory is exercised and practice in forms of expression is acquired. Spelling, capitalization, punctuation, paragraphing, are impressed, and neatness, accuracy, and quickness are taught by constant repetition but the time spent in learning typewriting would not be well spent, if it were not for the facility it affords.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. MINUTES OF MEETINGS HELD AT LOUISVILLE, KY., FEB. 20, AND 28, 1906

Monday, Feb. 26.—An open meeting had been arranged for to be held in the Warren Memorial Church. Here over six hundred people gathered and listened from eight o'clock until ten to the discussion of George P. Brown's *Yearbook* on the study of English. The following members gave short, pointed, stimulating discussions. All excepting Mr. Brown, the author, were limited to ten minutes each, and occupied the full time:

George P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.

Pres. L. H. Jones, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti.

Prof. George M. Forbes, Rochester University, Rochester, N. Y.

Prof. W. S. Sutton, University of Texas, Austin.

Supt. Stratton D. Brooks, Boston, Mass.

Prof. Samuel T. Dutton, Columbia University.

Pres. Charles McKenny, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Prof. Reuben Post Halleck, Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.

Miss Ada Van Stone Harris, Supervisor Kindergarten and Primary Education, Rochester, N. Y.

J. Stanley Brown, Township High School, Joliet, Ill.

F. Louis Soldan, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis.

Each speaker discussed a specific, limited phase of the subject.

This meeting was considered one of the best the Society ever held. It certainly was a notable meeting in that the large audience gave uninterrupted attention until ten o'clock, at which hour President Dexter ended the discussion by declaring an adjournment.

Although this meeting was a great popular success, and like all such meetings, was highly gratifying to writers and speakers, yet it is doubtful if a strictly scientific body can fittingly lend itself to popular demonstrations. Such a meeting always takes the time and absorbs the opportunity for a meeting at which members should get down to close and severe study and exchange of views on the problem before the Society.

Wednesday, Feb. 28.—At four o'clock p. m., about forty active members gathered in the parlors of the First Christian Church, Pres. Edwin G. Dexter presiding.

Minutes of Asbury Park meetings were approved as written in the *Yearbook*.

Moved, That the Secretary get a stenographic report of discussions at meetings of the Society and print the same in the minutes.

Two main objections were urged against this motion: first, it would involve too great an expense for printing; and second, such reports might often be of questionable value.

After two amendments the motion was passed as follows: That members of the Society submit to the Secretary abstracts of their discussions for printing in the *Yearbook* when requested by the Executive Committee.

President Dexter ruled that discussion of Mr. Brown's monograph, "The Teaching of English in Elementary and High Schools" be taken up first, and that at five o'clock he should call for business, unless the Society instructed otherwise.

Discussion was continuous for one hour, yet very few of the main propositions or problems of Mr. Brown's study were touched upon. This suggests the value of planning for a consideration of the main points in a paper, and allotting to each point its proportional part of the available time.

The following members took leading parts in the discussion: Homer P. Lewis, Stratton D. Brooks, Charles A. McMurry, W. J. McConathy, Thomas H. Briggs, Jr., John W. Cook, Ossian H. Lang, L. H. Jones, Francis G. Blair, and others.

Hereafter when recording the names of new members the items of biographical information called for in the application blanks will be given for more complete identification. The following persons were elected to Active Membership at Louisville:

Thomas H. Briggs, Jr., A.B., Wake Forest (N. C.) College, and the University of Chicago; instructor in English, Eastern Illinois State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.

Elizabeth H. Bunnell, A.B., Mount Holyoke Seminary, A.M., Columbia University; teacher of English, Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Ira I. Cammack, B.S., Earlham College; principal of Central High School, Kansas City, Mo.

John W. Carr, A.B. and A.M., Indiana University; superintendent of instruction, Dayton, Ohio.

Albert S. Cook, A.B., Princeton University; superintendent of schools, Baltimore County, Md.

Emma C. Davis, supervisor of primary education, Cleveland, O.

Mary E. Doyle, superintendent of training, State Normal School, Superior, Wis.

Lida B. Earhart, student in Columbia University; formerly training teacher in State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.

A. C. Fleschman, M.S. and A.M.; professor of pedagogy and training, State Normal School, Slippery Rock, Pa.

J. Montgomery Gambrill, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute, assistant state superintendent of education, Baltimore, Md.

Herman C. Henderson, A.M., University of New Brunswick, and University of Chicago; professor of pedagogy, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Patty S. Hill, head of Louisville Kindergarten Training School, Louisville, Ky.

H. H. Holmes, B.S., instructor in mathematics, Central High School, Kansas City, Mo.

Horace H. Hollister, A.B. and A.M., Iowa State University; high school visitor, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Benj. J. James, A.M., Northwestern University, Chicago University; superintendent of schools, Waukesha, Wis.

Charles H. Judd, A.B., Wesleyan University, Ph.D., University of Leipzig; assistant professor of psychology, and director of summer school, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

W. H. Kirk, A.M., Baldwin University; superintendent of schools, East Cleveland, O.

Maria Kraus-Boelté, academic training in Germany and England; principal Kraus' Seminary for Kindergartners, Hotel San Reno, Central Park, New York, N. Y.

W. J. McConathy, principal Normal School, Louisville, Ky.

C. M. McDaniel, B.S. and A.M., Wabash College; superintendent of schools, Hammond, Ind., and principal Winona Lake Summer School

Irving I. Miller, Ph.D., Rochester University and University of Chicago; professor of psychology, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Bertha Payne, head kindergarten teacher, School of Education Chicago, Ill.

The nominating committee, consisting of J. H. Van Sickle, E. F. Buchner, F. E. Bolton, Charles McKenny, and J. Stanley Brown, reported the following nominations:

For President—Reuben Post Halleck, Louisville, Ky.

For Secretary-Treasurer—Manfred J. Holmes, Normal, Ill.

For Members of Executive Committee—W. S. Sutton, of the University of Texas, and Stratton D. Brooks, Boston, Mass.

The report was adopted and the nominees declared elected.

President Dexter read a communication from the President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science inviting the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education to affiliate with that organization. President Dexter then explained the probable advantages of becoming associated with such a scientific society, and how it would affect the constitution of the National Society. After considerable discussion the invitation was declined, and the President instructed to make appropriate response to the invitation.

The following report of the Committee on renaming the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education was next received.

To the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education:

Your committee appointed to make recommendations concerning the renaming of this Society, submitted a report at the Asbury Park meeting recommending the adoption of the name, "The National Society of Education." Because the question of affiliation with the American Association for the Advancement of Science was under consideration, it was deemed wise to defer final action and the question of renaming was referred back to the committee for further consideration to report at the February meeting, 1906.

Your committee wishing to secure a fuller expression of preferences than was possible at the time of making its first report, sent out additional inquiries to members with the following results:

Out of a total of thirty-three preferences, fifteen were in favor of the name "The National Society of Education," six favored the "American Education Society," and thirteen were scattering.

Your committee still holds that because of brevity and the retention of the larger part of the present name of the Society that the name "The National Society of Education" should be adopted. Inasmuch as the preferences of members, as far as expressed, were largely in favor of the name, your committee recommends that this Society be renamed "The National Society of Education."

Respectfully submitted,

H. E. KRATZ

F. G. BLAIR

W. S. SUTTON

Committee on Renaming

It was moved and seconded to adopt the report of the committee on renaming. After some discussion, the motion was voted on and lost.

Motion was then made and seconded to adopt the name "The Herbart Society." This motion was amended giving the Executive Committee discretionary power as to the use of the word "National" or "American" preceding the word "Herbart." The motion as amended was passed by a large majority.

This motion to adopt the name "The Herbart Society" was not offered as an amendment to the constitution, it was not so interpreted by the presiding officer, no announcement was made (in fact no vote was taken) as to whether the majority was the two thirds majority required to amend the constitution; therefore, since a change of name involves a change in the constitution, the Executive Committee did not feel authorized nor warranted in introducing any change of name until the action of the Society should meet the requirements of the constitution.

Dr. C. A. McMurry suggested a valuable line of work the Society might encourage, namely, the formation of local clubs for the study and discussion of the *Yearbooks*.

II. STATUS AND PROSPECTUS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY

1. *Historical note.*--The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education is the lineal successor to the National Herbart Society which was organized at the Denver meeting of the National Educational Association in 1895. The National Herbart Society was born on the one hand of the serious need of advancing the status of scientific method in education in our country, and on the other hand of the progressive energy of a small group of the younger American educators. It was one of several characteristic movements in the history of education in the United States during the last decade of the nineteenth century. This decade marks a veritable renaissance in American education, and it would be a biased or superficial historian who should say that all the various phases of this renaissance were not essentially indigenous to America. The high-school movement was a vigorous and prolific outburst rather than a gradual growth because the need of secondary education for all the people had grown much more rapidly than provision for or even recog-

inition of such need. The reselecting and reorganizing the elementary course of study to more faithfully and adequately meet the requirements of modern life and the needs of the children was another conspicuous phase of this awakening. As a logical result of these two movements came the demand for better instruction and the more adequate provision for the education and training of teachers. It was in this decade that the child-study movement had its overflow, and when seen in the light of its true causal relations must be recognized as a highly important phase of this educational renaissance. The great improvement in methods and effectiveness of the work of the National Educational Association was a response to the educational situation. Some of the most progressive and aggressive young men of the country determined to equip themselves to meet the educational situation with the highest possible degree of effectiveness. Happily they truly discerned that the vital core, the very heart, of the educative process is the unitary action of learning and teaching; and that the art of teaching rests upon principles or laws that inhere in the nature of the learner and the subject-matter. They therefore concentrated their study upon the conditions and mental processes involved in learning, and upon the selection and organization of the content of the course of study. Some of these men went to Germany to get what help they could, while some stayed at home. Those who went abroad seem to have been deeply impressed and inspired by the educational doctrines of Johann Friedrich Herbart, who in a very true sense was the father of the scientific study of education. On returning to America these men applied themselves with serious devotion and great vigor to improvement in our courses of study and methods of teaching. They inaugurated a propaganda of educational ideas that for serious enthusiasm and popular contagion can hardly be paralleled. The chief studies, discussions, and writings focussed upon such central, organizing topics as "the doctrine of interest," "the law of apperception," "the selection and correlation (or concentration) of subject-matter of the course of study"—"the culture epoch theory" being a chief theme here," "the formal steps of instruction," "the ethical aim of education," etc. Now because these topics were also the central and fundamental ones in Herbart's pedagogy, the men who propagated the ideas in America under the Herbartian terminology, came to be

called Herbartians. They did not object to the distinction thus given, and when they finally organized themselves for greater effectiveness it was natural, logical, and appropriate for them to adopt the name they did. The first name was "The Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Teaching."¹ The second form of the name was "The National Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Education."² This second form of the name continued until 1899. For convenience the explanatory part of the name was omitted in everyday use.

The leaders of this national movement for a serious, intense, and scientific study of vital and pressing educational problems are well represented by the first "executive council," which continued in office from 1895 to 1899. They were Charles De Garino, president, Nicholas Murray Butler, John Dewey, Wilbur S. Jackman, Elmer E. Brown, Frank M. McMurry, Levi Seeley, C. C. Van Liew, and Charles A. McMurry, secretary. It must not be inferred that all the names in this now noted list of American educators belonged to the "Herbartian" category. Both the personnel and the clientele of the Society from its inception show that the movement was broader than what is denoted by the term "Herbartian;" but the Society as a whole was for some years characterized and dominated by the stirring enthusiasm and aggressive leadership of those who were closely identified with the "Herbartian" topics. The first three *Yearbooks* show that the studies and discussions were almost entirely on the so-called "Herbartian" topics. The *Fourth Yearbook* shows a breaking up and a broadening out; while the *Fifth Yearbook* and its Supplement show that the thought has returned to the educational situation in its wider extent and its newer meaning. Then follows a year (1900) for which there is no record of any activity of the Society. No meetings were held and no *Yearbook* issued.

In February, 1901, the National Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Education was reorganized with somewhat extended plan and purpose. The name remained the same excepting that the word "Herbart" was omitted and the explanatory part was included in the everyday use of the name.

2. *Purpose and method of the National Society.*—During its first stage the National Society "was organized for the aggressive dis-

¹ Preface to *First Yearbook*.

² *First Yearbook*, p. 204.

cussion and spread of educational doctrines," and it desired "to draw into its membership all teachers, students of education, and parents who wish[cd] to keep abreast of the best thought and discussion." The purpose, further, was "to give to the doctrines of Herbart, as of other educators, a thorough study and criticism;" and "to test all theories by the standard of practical usefulness." Some weeks before the N. E. A. meetings it published a *Yearbook* that contained one or more monographs on important educational topics carefully worked out by specialists in the field discussed. It was supposed that members would study the *Yearbook* before the meetings, thus preparing for able and profitable discussion. These books were also widely disseminated through the trade channels. The chief characteristic purposes of the Society in its first stage, therefore, were the writing of monographs on important educational topics, and the discussion of these monographs by members of the Society at their regular general meetings and by members organized as local round tables.

During its second stage the original purposes of the Society have been continued, but there are some distinctive characteristics added; e. g., the topics cover a greater scope of vital educational principles and problems; each active member of the Society is supposed to be seriously and patiently at work upon the study of some problem arising out of his immediate work, and that he is seeking the solution of his problem by a scientific method of procedure; thus the Society endeavors to help elevate the scientific character of both the personnel and the work of the teaching profession; it calls for expert inductive studies of prevailing conditions as a guide to intelligent treatment and improvement of these conditions; from time to time it calls for reports from active members indicating the specific problem under study, the method of proceeding in the study, and the results obtained; it is planning to issue a series of monographs collating and organizing the fundamental data—the conditions, processes, laws, and guiding principles—underlying the science and art of education; it seeks to cultivate a spirit of professional co-operation and reduce to a minimum the spirit of commercial competition. Its organ for all these purposes is the *Yearbook*, supplemented by circular letters and other communications, and close and careful discussion at the meetings. Some of these

projects are still on probation, and it is yet to be seen whether a society with such standards and purposes can be maintained by the teaching profession. I have not the slightest doubt that such a society can be maintained. There is great need for it, and there is a sufficient body of men and women who earnestly desire such an organization; what is needed is an organizing genius who can take hold of the situation and bring about the results desired.

III. ANNOUNCEMENTS TO ACTIVE MEMBERS

The Chicago meetings, Feb. 25-28, 1907.--Owing to the postponement of the San Francisco meetings, two topics will come before the Society at Chicago.

First, Prof. Ellwood P. Cubberley's monograph on "The Certification of Teachers" will be the basis for discussion for Monday evening, Feb. 25. This meeting will be held in the Auditorium Hotel, beginning at 7:30 p. m. Look for placard notice.

On Wednesday, p. m., 4:00 o'clock, the report of the committee on college entrance credit for vocational courses will be the basis of discussion. The place for this meeting will be announced by placard in the hotel lobby.

Supplementary meetings may be held if the Society so decides.

At the Wednesday session the regular annual business meeting will be held. The items of business so far as known at this writing are—

Election of officers.

A consideration of the policy and method of the Society. Should we issue more than one leading study a year? To what extent should the *Yearbook* contain reports from active members? Shall the *Yearbook* be an open forum for the thoughtful and dignified presentation of differences of opinion on questions that come before the Society? Shall there be established a new standard for Active membership? The right sort of standard could be made suggestive and stimulating to the younger members of the profession. This Society ought to be of such high character that membership in it will be a truly worthy goal for the more professionally ambitious of the young men and women who enter the field of education. Should not the standard for election to Active membership soon be something like this?—No person to be eligible until he or she has

undertaken the study or investigation of some educational problem (either theoretical or practical) and brought it to some more or less definite conclusion. The evidence of such serious professional and scientific spirit could be considered a qualification for Active membership.

Ought not the secretaryship and the editorship to be divided between two persons?

Shall the National Society print in its *Yearbook* the reports of committees of other societies especially when those reports are, or are to be, printed elsewhere? Shall the committee plan of study and investigation be carried on?

To the above, other items of business that members may suggest will be added.

IV. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

M. J. Holmes, Secretary-Treasurer, in account with The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education for the year ending Dec. 31, 1906:

Debits—

To cash balance per statement Dec. 31, 1905.....	\$153.96	
To membership fees and dues for 1906.....	430.00	
To sales of Yearbooks prior to July, 1906.....	22.61	
	<hr/>	\$606.57

Credits—

By printing and stationery.....	\$204.65	
By office help and supplies.....	98.25	
By postage and express	43.26	
By traveling expenses	35.10	
By telephone and telegraph messages.....	2.80	
	<hr/>	\$384.06

Balance due the National Society	<hr/>	\$22.51
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The University of Chicago Press in account with the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education (items shown by memorandum bills and statements):

Debits—

Jan. 1 to Mar. 31, 1906.....	\$.75	
April 1 to July 31, 1906.....	3.05	
August 1 to Dec. 31, 1906.....	330.21	
	<hr/>	\$334.01

Credits—

Balance due the National Society per statement Dec. 31, 1905	\$ 37.25	
Jan. 1 to Mar. 31, 1906.....	84.34	
April 1 to July 31, 1906	77.88	
Aug. 1 to Dec. 31, 1906.....	204.93	
	<hr/>	\$404.40
		\$70.39

Balance standing to credit of the Society Dec. 31, 1906.....		\$492.99
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THE SIXTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE KINDERGARTEN AND ITS RELATION TO ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

BY

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS,

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EDITED BY

MANFRED J. HOLMES

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

THE SUBJECT OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE LOS ANGELES
MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, MONDAY, JULY 8,
AND WEDNESDAY, JULY 10, 1907

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MANFRED J. HOLMES
SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

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PREFACE

One most striking phase of current educational history in the United States is the status of both theory and practice of kindergarten education and its relation to elementary-school education. It is universally accepted that the law of unity and continuity applies to the development of human beings as truly as to any other forms of life; but educational practice is slow to adjust itself to educational theories even after such theories have become permanently established by scientific investigation and criticism. A bald proof of the truth of this statement is found in the relation of kindergarten education to the first years of school education. The problems and conditions involved in this relation have been carefully studied, and the results are here offered as a contribution to the solution of one of the most urgent problems in American education today.

This *Yearbook* is published with the hope that it will stir kindergartners, primary teachers, and supervisors to renewed thought and study; that thus they will more clearly define their common problems, develop more mutual sympathy and appreciation, and become better able to co-operate intelligently and effectively in their great work.

The writers of this *Yearbook* are peculiarly and eminently well fitted to speak on their respective phases of the problem under consideration.

Miss Harris, to whom are due the origin and execution of the plan, has a national reputation in this field of education. She has conceived and carried out the plan under the advantage of a broad and accurate knowledge of needs, conditions, and persons.

Professor Kirkpatrick stands close to the head of the list of careful and trustworthy students of childhood and the whole field of education.

The paper by Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelté is of much historical value, coming as it does from one who has been working for upwards of a quarter-century for the spread of the kindergarten in the simplicity and earnestness which characterized Froebel's own demonstrations of his idea. A link is found here which unites the kindergarten of today in this country with that of Froebel more

than fifty years ago in Germany. The welcome which the kindergarten received in the United States among people interested in education and social progress is largely due to its introduction by persons of such culture and sympathetic insight as are possessed by Mrs. Kraus-Boelté.

This paper reflects the educational teachings of Froebel as he enunciated them, without the accretions or the modifications of recent years. For this reason, one finds here a sympathetic and intuitive presentation of the claims of childhood; and of the means prepared by the founder of the kindergarten for encouraging creation and discovery, with such directions for their use as Froebel deemed essential to promote "willing obedience," order, and freedom in the life of children.

Miss Hill, Miss Mills, and Miss Vandewalker, together with a few others, stand for the newer developments of the kindergarten and its organic connection with the primary school. They believe in a *progressive* ideal of life and education, and, therefore in a progressive adaptation of institutions to the needs of life as new wants appear or as old wants call for satisfaction in a higher degree.

The present *Yearbook* does not complete the study. It will be supplemented by a careful, detailed study of conditions, possibilities of improvement, and ways of bringing about such improvement, so that both kindergarten and primary school may more nearly make their maximum contribution to the education of children.

M. J. HOLMES

THE SIXTH YEARBOOK

I

INTRODUCTION

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS

Assistant Superintendent, Kindergarten and Primary Schools, Rochester, N. Y.

The aim in the preparation of this Yearbook has been to bring before this Society, for careful consideration, the purpose, value, and scope of kindergarten education as the basis of our educational structure. It is viewed from the standpoint of the psychologist, from that of the student and teacher who first received the kindergarten message from Keilhau under the instruction of Frau Froebel, and from that of kindergartners whose view-point has been modified because of training, conditions, and environment; also from the point of view of one who has watched and worked with the child beyond his kindergarten period, and thus can value its influence upon the future stage of educational work.

BASIC PRINCIPLES AND EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE KINDERGARTEN

The principles which underlie the kindergarten work are universal, fundamental, and absolutely a part of all that is good in educational processes from the beginning. That the vital principles of education should prevail in both the kindergartens and the schools, and that the application of these principles to the great institutions of learning, so that it shall be an unbroken circle, and that the development of our children may be harmonious and continuous, and the chain of impressions perfect and unbroken, is the essential problem in education.

More than any other educational movement of the century, perhaps, the kindergarten, derives its validity from its recognition of a basic philosophy. It exists that the child, every child, may have life and have it more abundantly; that the community may be elevated, the race improved.

Dr. Hailman ably defended the kindergarten when he said :

It is not a mere ingenious contrivance, invented for the purpose of amusing little children instructively, and of relieving the indolent or overburdened mothers of troubles and embryo sufferings, but a plan of education that has its roots far down in child-nature, and that shelters beneath its branches strong, ripe men and women. It is not a mere cunning invention between the nursery and the school, intended to train up the raw material for the wisdom factories; but a full scheme of education that is to lead the human being from birth to maturity in the road of a wise and useful activity to the goal of true happiness. It recognizes that every child has a threefold nature. He is body, mind, and soul.

The child's early life is in a small circle. With new observations and new experiences the circle of his life steadily widens.

For a few months the child hardly leaves the arms of the mother; then he seeks his companions in his brothers and sisters, or in the objects and animals about the home. Later the neighborhood furnishes a broader field; he is eager to go to school for the broader life he finds there; the kindergarten, the school, the college, all come in their turn to minister to his broadening life. The thoughtful teacher of little children today recognizes that every child has in him powers, possibilities, and capabilities that are his alone, and differing in a degree from those of every other child, and thus aims in his work to minister to the life of his pupils, that he may cause them to live more broadly, more richly, and more abundantly.

Probably no one factor in education during the last quarter of a century has been so potent in the advancement of teaching and the training of children as the kindergarten. It is safe to assume that every grade of school has shared in the new life. Courses of study from the primary school to the university have been recast under the kindergarten influence until the whole purpose of public-school education today is to fit the child to play his part in the various institutions of social activity.

To occupy space to discuss the physical, mental, and moral aspect of the play in the kindergarten, of creative activity, of individual development, of the sociology of the kindergarten, or its plan for a natural and logical development of those faculties used in the school-life—actual and ideal—would be taking time to emphasize what all are fully familiar with, and to repeat much of what is contained in the following chapters.

As an introduction, it may be wise to briefly review in what respect the kindergarten prepares the child for the primary school.

The kindergarten is pre-eminently a school of observation and experience, and so gives vital meaning to the facts and events which the child's first books record.

The child's contact with things, his observation of the aspects of nature and the occupations of man, the habit of tracing and observing the processes and relations of both, are the best foundations for profitable use of the simplest reading-exercises. Furthermore, the kindergarten teaches the child good literature, and believes in biasing the child's literary tastes. The poems and stories are carefully chosen, and should cultivate not only the taste, but the imagination, and fill the child's mind with thoughts that ennoble and uplift. The expression of thought in the form of spoken language is also a very large part of kindergarten training. The children are encouraged to tell what they have observed, or made, or done; to repeat stories related, and to recite memory gems and rhymes.

In the kindergarten the child gets his first training in mathematics; he manipulates objects and is stimulated to observe simple numbers, their relations and combinations. He counts objects of the same kind, and makes his own numerical discoveries. He handles and constructs with divisible objects (the kindergarten blocks) and gets some idea of simple fractional parts.

The rudiments of art education in the kindergarten are begun through brush-work, paper-work, cardboard construction, clay-modeling, and stick-laying. To construct simple but harmonious designs and objects; to combine carefully chosen colors; to produce with clay objects in nature; to illustrate with pencil and brush poems and stories, thereby cultivating the imagination; to invent wholly original forms—all these are daily exercises of the kindergarten, and lay the best foundation for art instruction.

The nature-work and observation lessons of the kindergarten connect directly with the teaching of natural science, and the first simple lessons in geography. Plants and animals in the child's surroundings are noticed, talked about, cared for; the sun, moon, stars, light, clouds, wind, water, rain, snow, are observed. Thus the children learn to regard nature's forms and processes, and begin to think about the relation of things.

The songs and games of the kindergarten, aside from their

supreme value in the development of mind and heart, are the beginnings of more systematic physical training in the grades.

In glancing over these requirements of the child who has left the kindergarten and has actually been taught nothing in the ordinary acceptance of the word, we find that he has worked, he has experimented, he has invented, he has compared, he has reproduced—"all things have been revealed in the doing, and productive activity has enlightened and developed the mind."

The time spent in the kindergarten, while not showing immediate results in the ordinary mechanics of school-life, should show far better results in the development of his character and intellectual power.

Froebel's chief aim was character-building.

Against the self-seeking system of schools the kindergarten protests in the most practical manner, for all its methods are adapted to develop feelings of kindness, of helpfulness, of sympathy with and respect for others. No one child is encouraged to do better than another, but each is stimulated to do his best. "Right feeling is necessary for true thinking; it is only when the heart is joyous that the intellect does its best work. The child depressed by discouragement, burdened with fear, wounded by injustice, or hungry for love, does not thrive either intellectually or morally;" and the first aim of the kindergarten is to see that he is happy.

CO-ORDINATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY SCHOOL.

In the problem of a harmonious co-ordination of the kindergarten and primary school the observer has often encountered, on the one side, the zeal without discretion, or literal formalism, among kindergartners; and, on the other, the dogmatic prejudice of long-established custom. Here, as everywhere, "the letter killeth, the spirit maketh alive."

To be a true follower of Froebel in practice one must, like that great educator, get a complete view of the scope and function of education itself, and a clear-sighted, philosophic knowledge of child nature.

No thoughtful believer in Froebel's doctrine will claim for a moment that Froebel's exposition of his own methods forms the end of all real kindergarten work. Froebel expounded a great, all-

embracing doctrine of education, and under the very force of circumstances presented a method which he believed would and should be constantly developed higher and higher as circumstances permitted.

In the kindergarten, as in every other department of education, life means growth; and growth implies keeping pace with the advance of scientific, philosophical, and sociological discovery in the field of humanity, and skill in adapting such newly discovered truth by wise modifications of kindergarten methods in the interest of the child's best development.

The linking-together so that the chain of educational development may be strong and sure implies that in the kindergarten we shall find no formalism, no dwelling on dry facts, no set formulas; the threefold nature of the child—physical, intellectual, and spiritual—has full scope for healthy, natural, unrestricted development and expression.

With the kindergarten as a basis of our educational structure, the tendency is more and more to live and work with the children; and, instead of simply furnishing them a store of knowledge to develop the forces within them, to give them power to think and to do, and to teach them how to live.

Right living is the end of education. Power to think, power to do, the development of strength and beauty of character, are the most desirable results our schools can produce; all true education centers in the individual, and develops that personal force and power which best fits for successful living and individual usefulness in life.

The aim and atmosphere of the kindergarten and the modern school have much in common. In both the children are active, busy participants in the work that is going on.

Too many of the children who enter our primary schools at five years of age are subjected to a discipline and curriculum totally unfitted to their years, which results either in blunted sensibilities or in arrested development.

The day is past when the school existed for the development of subject-matter according to the caprices and whims of various individuals. "The education which develops good citizens and loyal members of the community aims at something more than the mere

imparting of facts; it must create ideas, help to strengthen the will, and prepare the child to take his place as a unit in the social whole." Making the child capable and desirous of living to this end is to lead him into a keen appreciation of the highest forms of civilized life—viz., the family, the state, the church, industrial and civilized society—and to make him a self-respecting, self-governing, and helpful agent of these same institutions. He is thus enabled, through social and civic selection, "to add to the experience of mankind, to reclaim new things from the mysteries which lie beyond man, and to make more perfect the existing human national institutions." The child is the *center* of development for the real school as for the kindergarten, and is no longer regarded as so much material to be "modeled after a fashion," but rather as a spiritual being full of the possibilities of development, if his treatment be in accord with the laws of his being.

In the *ideal* school the community spirit of the kindergarten is still carried out, and we find the school organized for the general good, to which each pupil is a contributing member. Such classrooms have the sunshine and atmosphere of a cheerful home; the appearance of busy workshops, in which each pupil is an interested workman for the love of the work, earnestly performing every duty with due regard for the rights of others, looking to the teacher only for direction and advice. In the school where the kindergarten is a vital part of the system the pupils work independently of the teacher; her chief duty is to train the child so as to enable him to gain desired information for himself. The value of all school-work depends largely upon the spirit with which it is carried on. "The spirit of the class is the surest criterion of the value of its work."

The highest type of school has for its ideal a community life, in which its government, its study—in short, all its movements—tend toward the realization of the highest and best physical, mental, and moral life of each individual and of the whole; a school in which the end and aim of all work on the part of teacher and pupil should be to fill every minute of every day with the best possible moral action.

All study, all school-work, moving steadily toward one ideal under the suggestion and hearty co-operation of each individual in the school, cannot fail to open new avenues of thought and discovery, to develop principles and to elaborate methods.

The correct theory of our educational system should be that the primary and kindergarten are one institution—simply a succession of grades developing naturally. The same spirit should prevail, and to a degree the same methods. As children advance there is a gradual change in the tools used, but the fundamental ideas of all the primary grades are the same—the development of the child. Freedom, both spiritual and physical, for the children should be the aim of every teacher.

The linking-together of kindergarten and school so that the development of our children shall be harmonious and continuous, and the chain of impressions perfect and unbroken, so that the community life of the kindergarten may prevail throughout, signifies that more knowledge, wisdom, tact, ingenuity, forethought, and earnestness of purpose are required of the teaching force over our country today than ever before.

The kindergarten stands for two things above all else—the community idea and the laboratory method. When we speak of continuing the kindergarten work through the grades, we mean kindergarten principles, not kindergarten material; we mean that the sweet joyousness of the kindergarten life, its activity, its interests, its community life and laboratory method, shall go on.

In schools where the kindergarten principles prevail, the pupils in the primary schools are divided into two or three groups for the purpose of study and recreation. These groups are organized so as to bring each child where he can do his best work, neither discouraged by those too far in advance nor made listless by tasks too easy to call forth his best effort. By the proper grouping of her pupils, the teacher finds the problems of discipline and good order reduced to the minimum, for each pupil in the grade is actively employed. While one group of a dozen or more is reading to the teacher, another is busy at the desks preparing an arithmetic lesson, and still a third is at the board having written work. Or, in a younger grade, one group is doing constructive work assigned by the teacher at the sand-table, or brush-work at the occupation table, and another is writing at the board what has been gained from a previous reading-lesson, while the teacher is free to give individual attention to the absorbed little group of learners who are reading.

A fundamental doctrine of correct pedagogy as applied to all

teaching is the law of growth through self-activity. But not all activity is educative. Mere doing something does not give growth. The something must be worth doing and done in an educative way. I have seen many a teacher satisfied so long as her pupils were actively engaged in making unintelligible pictures to illustrate something of little consequence, writing words or sentences twenty or thirty times, sorting colors, folding papers, etc. These activities may be of great value as means to an end, when used in proper connections, but as ends in themselves they are a waste of time and energy.

"That is an educative act which gives the individual power to do a new thing worth the doing, or to perform an old act more perfectly. It is supreme effort within the range of one's ability which gives growth."

Two of the greatest weaknesses of our public schools are, first, a failure to realize to the *full* the organic power of the recitation with the group; and, second, the failures (in a degree) to secure independent and persistent study and work from pupils. The school, with its elements and necessary processes, is the one *great* opportunity to teach through a concrete example all the institutional virtues. Here the child should first learn to co-operate on a large scale with his fellows in organized effort. The school should furnish the pupil with opportunity to observe the advantage which comes to him from the presence of the other pupils—opportunity to observe the necessity for the orderly respect for the equal rights of all.

Not all activity involves supreme effort, or any effort for that matter. What a child does automatically is done outside of his consciousness, beyond his horizon, and without the function of his personality. Automatic activity is not educative. The child may do a thousand acts that bring no mental response, no new mode of action, nor greater skill in those already acquired.

A great deal of school-work, primary work especially, is absolutely a waste of energy because it is not educative. A large part of the busy-work of the primary grades cannot stand the test of educative value. It is not merely so much performance with material. Much of the so-called teaching is a waste of energy because it resolves itself into "lesson-hearing." To do no more than to hear a recitation is to have failed.

To quote from a well-known kindergartner :

The kindergarten which is not inspired by Froebel's spirit stands out in sickening relief as a warning example of the wretched results to which the idea may be carried in the hands of a machinist. But the difference between primary schools is just as great, only, unfortunately, we have become used to it, and the kindergarten, being "under fire," so to speak, must be absolutely ideal in its perfection, or it is ruthlessly held up to scorn.

All educational philosophy maintains, and modern psychology has established the fact, that a child's development falls into well-marked stages, each of which has characteristics of its own and each requiring its own mode of treatment. The kindergarten develops the first of these stages.

The old idea of education, and in many instances the present prevailing one, is the idea of quantity, pedantry—so much actual spatial work must be done, so many stages studied, so many lessons learned, and so many books gone over and finished, so much marking to register quantity alone.

The ideal standard for every school should be quality, not quantity; process, not product; culture, not acquirement, in order that the child may leave school a useful citizen. The true purpose of the kindergarten has been to fit the child to enter upon the relations of life. To this end he has been taught self-control, obedience to law, justice, respect for the rights of his mates, and all those virtues which will, when put into practice, render him a respectable, useful member of society. These virtues planted in the kindergarten must be carefully nourished and made to grow in the primary school.

SUMMARY

The kindergarten aims to establish an initial understanding between the home and the school—an advantage to the school. It affords an opportunity to hold back children to a time when they are at a point of maturity when the work of the primary school should commence. It often is difficult to make parents understand the wisdom of postponing the beginning of school-life after the child is of school age. A year lost at five or six may well be two years saved later.

The kindergarten aims successfully at putting the little child in possession of every faculty he is capable of using, and at giving him the wish to learn and the power of teaching himself.

The kindergarten offers the child experience instead of instruction; life instead of learning; a miniature world, where he lives, grows, expands, and learns.

The kindergarten stands for something just as definite and necessary in the life and development of the child as does the primary school. They are one in aim, differing only in means and efforts; the kindergarten using such materials and methods as are adapted to children of that age. There should be no abrupt change between the kindergarten and the first grade, any more than between any other two grades of school.

The need of a closer connection between the kindergarten and the school over our land is acknowledged—"a consummation devoutly to be wished." We all too frequently hear that this union will fail of realization till the primary teacher has had the advantage of a full kindergarten course. A knowledge of Froebel's principles and their application is most desirable, nay a necessity, for every teacher; but that is not enough. The kindergartner must help to bridge the gap by gaining a clear knowledge of and a keen insight into the work that follows here, and of the relation of each part to the other. There should be no fetishism in the kindergarten, but always a study of the children with a view to their development, not a development of material.

No kindergartner should object to the term "teacher," when applied to herself, as if her work were apart from all other educational forces; but when kindergartner and teacher have a common purpose and spirit, the unity in education for which we are working and vaguely yearn will come to a realization. As we come into a clearer understanding of the work of each by the other, as to the purpose, spirit, and end to be reached, then we all, the kindergartners and the grade-teachers, become teachers in the highest sense of the word. We need constantly to rise on "stepping-stones of our dead selves" to higher things, by seeking for a clearer understanding of the general principles of education, by a more intelligent appreciation of Froebel's thought and of its application to the child, by a broader, sweeter, and more catholic spirit toward all our allies, and thereby to recognize the true relation of the kindergarten to all other departments of education.

II

THE PSYCHOLOGIC BASIS OF THE KINDERGARTEN

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EDUCATIONAL IDEALS AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

A sharp distinction should be made between educational programs and educational ideals. Ideas of education, like ideas of what life is and means, are gained from experience and thought, not from special experiments and tests. They are best formulated, not by the scientist, but by the poet, the prophet, the philosopher. Their truth is determined by the completeness with which they satisfy the souls of men; and those ideals which most fully satisfy the inner nature of all men in all ages are most valuable.

An educational program, on the other hand, is an attempt to realize ideals of life through certain processes. In this field the test of truth is not whether the statement of the program appeals to any man or all men as satisfactory and logical. The poet, the prophet, and the philosopher may make lucky guesses as to the results of the proposed program, or they may miss the truth even more completely than a commonplace ignoramus. The test is here not the subjective satisfaction that the program gives, but the more objective results of influencing the physical and mental activities of human beings by the actual use of the program. The results of an educational program must therefore be determined by psychological principles, and tested by observation and experiment, as are facts of other sciences.

Many of the errors that have been made in educational practice in the past, that are being made now, and that will be made in the future, are due to the fact that the results of subjective thinking about educational practice have been accepted without being tested by careful objective observation and experiment. The error and harm of this tendency have been especially great in the kindergarten and in primary education. An adult who has observed his own learning processes and development can form some idea of the processes

in other adult minds, but just in proportion as his mind is highly developed before he studies closely those processes will he be likely to make out a program for children that is unsuited to their less developed forms of mental activity. It may be that the clearer his ideal of what man should be and the clearer his idea of what the child is, the more will he try to take what seems to be the logical method of most surely and quickly changing the child from what he is into what he should be as a man. As we shall see, Froebel was especially subject to this danger.

FROEBEL'S CONCEPTION OF EDUCATION

Whatever I may say of the psychology and the educational program of the kindergarten as planned and carried on by Froebel and his followers, I have nothing but admiration for his general conception of education. He did not originate everything that is good in his conception, nor has he stated the whole truth clearly and in detail. He saw the same deep truths of life and growth that have been seen more or less clearly in one form or another by the great thinkers of all time. I know of no one, however, who has seen so many of the great truths of life in their educational aspect and arranged them in such a complete harmonious unity as has Froebel. I am not now speaking of his ideas of primary education, but of his ideas and ideals of the general educational process. These are as true for the man as for the child, probably more so; and the college needs a program in accordance with them even more than the kindergarten.

Froebel also had a marvelous insight into the child-nature and the ideals to be realized in different stages of development; but modern scientific study and investigation are making clear and definite what was obscure and poorly defined in his mind, and revealing many important truths regarding the physical and mental nature of children and the order of development that were entirely unknown to him.

Froebel in his theory of unity and self-activity (how much those words have been abused!) showed a complete grasp of what education really is—a process of inward growth into harmony between self and environment (natural and human) with one's body and soul and with the Source of all being. He realized that each

person is an individual—a unit, and that he can grow only by his own activity, and that the highest form of development can be reached only by action toward ends that seem desirable to him. One may be trained according to the ideas of another; but to be truly educative such ideas must become the individual's own. Spontaneous ideals must also be permitted to arise in the individual's own soul, given expression, and allowed to work themselves out in play and work. These ideas of what education is and should do are so fundamental and universally true that they are to be studied and understood rather than criticized.

FROEBEL'S PSYCHOLOGY AND CHILD-STUDY

Froebel's psychology is the product of a prolonged study of his own nature, of his reading of the philosophy of his time, and of mystical analogies to the processes of nature; hence it is a mixture of profound truths of mental life with unintelligibilities that may with equal reason be classed as deepest truths or as trivial analogies and (in literal meaning) evident absurdities. Its fundamental assumption that the processes of nature are the processes of mind and that the processes of mind are the processes of nature is, in the sense in which he used it, more in accord with the philosophy of the dark ages than with the theory and practice of modern science. Scientists have once for all given up the idea that the laws of nature can be evolved from the mental operations of man. The final test of truth in nature must be objective observation and experiment. In a similar way the truths of psychology must be tested by observing how the mind does work rather than by studying crystals and plants and thinking how the mind must work.

Froebel's theoretical basis of child-study was also not in accordance with modern science. He believed that by studying his own mind he could determine the stages of development of the human race and of the individual child. We now believe that verifiable truth regarding the development of the human race and of children can be obtained only by prolonged and extensive study of the facts of racial and child life. To depend largely upon introspection, as did Froebel, gives no standard or test of truth when individuals reach different conclusions.

Fortunately Froebel observed children as well as thought about how they must develop. His own nature was also in many respects

childlike, and his attitude sympathetic. Probably no single individual ever so fully understood the fundamental and universal characteristics of child and human nature as did Froebel. Yet his conception of a child was in a large measure that of a man in miniature unspoiled by training and tradition, rather than of a creature differing from an adult qualitatively as well as quantitatively. He regarded a child, apparently, as being nearly as self-conscious and purposive as an adult. He apparently did not realize that the unity in the child's mind is not only less in degree than in the adult mind, but that it is probably different in kind. In so far as a child is like a man and his development is like that of a man, Froebel knew him from studying his own development, but in so far as a child has characteristics not possessed in an appreciable degree by a man, and almost wholly lacks some that adults have, he did not know him. He gained much from observing children, but his observations were organized by his theories and used to illustrate them rather than to test or modify them. His observations of the physical development of children were less modified by his theories, and, though good, cannot, of course, be compared with modern studies in completeness and accuracy.

Froebel's theories of human and child-nature are, on the one hand, most profound, inspiring, and illuminating, and on the other, pervaded by vagueness and unjustifiable—even trivial—analogies. The reader who, because of the part that is evidently true and profound, accepts the rest as being true and so deep as to be incapable of clear expression in words soon becomes involved in his mystic system of symbolism, and is forever condemned (or transported, as one may choose to regard it) to his circle of thought. He can go on developing within that system, continually finding illustrations of its truths in his daily observations and in his own life, but he can never get outside of the system, never perceive any new truth of child-nature, but only fresh and more convincing illustrations of truths already formulated or implied in Froebel's teachings.

The results of the study and practice of kindergarten philosophy are much the same as the varying beliefs and practices of a religious system. In the Christian religion, without departing from the life and teaching of Christ as the basis, we have had rigid, body-torturing asceticism, austere, stoical Puritanism, the joyous shoutings of Methodism, the cold logical theology of Calvinism, and the

liberal thought of Unitarianism. In the kindergarten thought and practice there are as many variations, but they are not so great in degree. Fortunately liberal views are gaining ground.

KINDERGARTEN PRINCIPLES

Froebel is one of the few men who have succeeded in constructing a theory of education, formulating principles to be observed, and devising a program—all of which have proved pre-eminently valuable. Froebel's theory of education is valuable because of his prolonged introspective study and reflection upon the meaning of life. His educational program, the kindergarten, is valuable because of his prolonged sympathetic observation of children and of different modes of dealing with them. The faults of the kindergarten are due partly to misunderstandings of his theories, to misplacements of emphasis as to what is of most value, and to slowness in working out new and more effective modes of realizing his ideas. This, I think, most kindergartners will admit. Many, however, will doubtless be shocked when I say that I believe that many of the errors, defects, and failures of the kindergarten are not due to mistakes of his followers, but are inherent in the system and most prominent where Froebel is most faithfully and logically followed.

Froebel's educational program was constructed by taking the results of his observations which were generally good, and modifying and arranging them to fit into a scheme of development by which unity and the other ideals of education (so his introspection and reasoning told him) must be attained. As already indicated, his ideas of child-development were not well founded, and his expectation that the effect of the various gifts and occupations of the child-mind would conform to the principles derived from his own mathematical, analogical, mystical modes of thinking were more likely than not to fail of realization. Yet it is his principles of development that have dominated the kindergarten practice, determining the choice of material, its special educational value, and the necessary order or sequence of presentation and construction.

For example, why are the balls chosen as the first gift? Because the ball is the symbol of unity of life and motion, and because from it all other forms may be derived. These are the chief reasons for choosing the ball and making it the first gift. In explaining to the uninitiated who have not learned to think in symbols, such minor

facts as these are mentioned: "The child easily grasps the balls, finds them pleasant to the touch, and is much interested in them because of the many things he can do with them;" but Froebel and all faithful kindergartners would not for a moment admit that such facts as these are the real, fundamental, final reason for the choice of the balls as the first gift. To kindergartners they are merely incidental facts illustrating to ordinary minds great fundamental principles that guided Froebel in planning the kindergarten. Kate Douglas Wiggin says that the similar balls of different colors "enable him to make his first clear analysis or abstractions, since the color is the only point wherein the objects differ." Is this a theoretical statement, or is it founded on a study of what children know upon entering the kindergarten? Do children who enter the kindergarten have no ideas of form and color, and will they never get clear ideas of them if they do not have this first gift? The other gifts are chosen for similar reasons; e. g., the cube, as the symbol of rest, colored black and white to symbolize the day and night side of life. In the same way is their order of presentation determined and the modes of manipulating them prescribed by the law of contrast and sequence. The occupations are selected according to similar theoretical principles of symbolism and mathematical synthesis.

Froebel's observations suggested to him gifts and occupations to be used, and many of them are admirable in their effects upon the child, but the real reason for choosing and arranging them as has been done is, in the mind of Froebel and his followers, not primarily observed effects, but theoretical considerations. So long as this remains true, kindergartners can progress no more than could the scholastic philosophers who founded all their arguments upon the teachings of Aristotle and the church fathers.

I do not mean that there is no law of sequence, no arrangement of gifts and occupations that is better than another. If there is any uniformity in child-nature at all, there must be some order of activity of the child's mind that is better than others. What I wish to emphasize is that a sequence conceived as natural and necessary by an adult mind like Froebel's is more likely than not to be, in the child's mind, no sequence at all, because he is entirely unconscious of the characteristics upon which the sequence is based. A sequence must be within the child's own mind instead of in that of an adult.

What constitutes a valuable sequence to him can be determined only by his outward manifestation of attention and interest, and by the way in which the activity of yesterday and last week or last year affects that of today in the kindergarten and out of it.

Again, though Froebel emphasized the truth that the child goes through various stages of development, in each of which his treatment should vary, yet he and his followers, like other educators generally, have based their reasons for doing certain things upon the assumption that because a certain kind of training or knowledge will be needed by adults it should be given the young child. There is also a tendency among kindergartners, as among other educators, to judge of the value of educational procedure by the rapidity with which the child is being made over into the likeness of a man, rather than by the perfectness with which he is being led to realize his highest possibilities as a child. The ideal that the child should attain to the highest possibilities of each stage of development before entering upon the next is upheld by Froebel and his followers, but largely ignored in the principles underlying the kindergarten program.

His principle of the use of type forms, both literal and figurative, is based on the thought that the best type form is the perfect form, whereas psychologically and pedagogically the best type form is usually that which is intermediate between the perfect form and the greatest variation that can be considered as being of the same form. His principle of unity applied to education concerned more his own conceptions of unity than the psychological, actual, concrete unity which is shown in and developed by acts of attention and in related activities.

KINDERGARTEN PRACTICE

Kindergartens vary, but not as much as other schools, because they adhere to a common theory and because the training of their teachers is more uniform. In general, they probably give as good or better education for children under five than the average school gives at any other period of life. The *best* primary schools, however, are certainly superior to the *average* kindergarten, and in my judgment, even to the best kindergartens conducted by strictly orthodox kindergartners.

I have not the time, the preparation, nor the necessary egotism

to attempt a complete detailed criticism of kindergarten practice, saying just what should and what should not be done. A few criticisms may be suggested as illustrations of what might be done.

Froebel's principle of having a thing done or a mental state aroused, and then described in words and expressed in action, is often systematically violated by prolonged dictation, premature explanation, and artificial expression. In many kindergartens the children spend so much time in fine work, in carrying out dictations, in the tremendously difficult task of sitting still *and doing nothing* while some child is getting ready for the next thing, that they are nervous and irritable when they go to their homes.

The principles of contrast and mediation of opposites are probably worked out in many ways that never affect the child's consciousness; and the same is doubtless true of much of the symbolism of the plays and occupations. The children are led to want to do what the teacher wishes and what other children are doing by imitation and love for the teacher, but not because the child's own nature demands the doing of those things. Voluntary imitation is also too often required instead of making the conditions favorable and trusting more to spontaneous imitation.

The children are taught to express, but the idea to be expressed and the mode of expression as such are often in the teacher's mind only. Children in the kindergarten are supposed to see things as wholes and to analyze and synthesize as do adults, when probably they often do none of these, but merely note striking features or those connected with some immediate interest or thing to be done.

The gifts and occupations of the kindergarten involve mathematical exactness of perception and expression, rather than the gradually growing definiteness and accuracy of thought and motion that is the normal mode of mental and physical development. Objects in nature instead of geometrical forms for use as gifts and in occupations would probably be a great improvement, as they have been found to be in elementary drawing.

The children should also spend much more time in the open air, in working and playing with plants and animals, and in expressing their feelings and ideas regarding them. Children might be allowed to work and play freely, alone or in small groups, instead of all doing everything together under the direction of the teacher. A much greater variety of stories, games, and songs might be used, and the

children encouraged to dramatize and imitate in their own way stories and interesting activities of people around them, instead of indulging so much in fanciful analogies and the fanciful stock kindergarten games.

Some kindergartens are charged with teaching too much and demanding too much self-control; while others are said to teach nothing and to fail in developing any tendency to sincere effort. A broader, richer kindergarten program seems to me desirable rather than definite teaching and accurate constructions; but interest should be developed of sufficient strength to produce persistent effort until ends are gained. It is not especially desirable that a child of the kindergarten age shall be conscious that he is learning, but that he shall enjoy a varied experience in his stories, songs, and play, and that he get the experience of success in doing things. The fact that he thinks he has succeeded is more important than that he shall have made something that looks pretty or is well made according to adult standards.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE KINDERGARTEN

Slight modification of kindergarten practice in response to such criticisms as are given above is not likely to result in great or rapid improvement in the kindergarten so long as Froebel's authority and system dominate the thought of kindergartners. What is needed is a change of attitude so that they shall be susceptible to non-Froebelian and even anti-Froebelian truths, and will actively search for such truth. A step in this direction has been taken in the kindergarten training department of Teachers College, Columbia University, under the direction of Miss Palmer, formerly assistant to Miss Merrill of New York City.

Something much more radical, however, is needed—nothing less than an experimental kindergarten where the most cherished principles of the kindergarten shall be violated and the results noted; where the law of contrast and sequence shall be ignored and the child, instead of making one figure from another, shall make chaos of the blocks or tablets from which to construct the next figure; where the order in which the gifts and occupations are taken up shall be varied indefinitely; where forms of life shall be made first, those of beauty next and of knowledge last; where, instead of the regular kindergarten gifts, shall be used nuts, seeds, fruits,

vegetables, grasses, and stems of various kinds, together with boards, nails, spools, rings, blocks, etc.; and where an entirely new set of songs, stories, and games shall be used.

Of course, to get definite results one group of children should be treated in one way and another group in another, the results being carefully noted. The children should be observed not only in the kindergarten under these different modes of treatment, but at home and later in the first grade. A very interesting preliminary experiment would be for students to go into strange schools and try to determine by observation and experiment which are kindergarten trained children and just how they differ from other children.¹

Experimental pedagogy is just beginning, and its most promising field at present, I believe, is the kindergarten. When children first leave the home and are brought together in groups is the time when the results of different modes of dealing with them can best be seen and tested.

Probably no better educational work is done in America today than in our better primary schools. Foreigners have noted that they are also very much alike all over the United States. Why is this? I believe it is due largely to the fact that almost every possible method of beginning various subjects and of occupying the time of children at their seats as well as of adding and omitting subjects has been tried in the first year of school where the necessity of reaching certain conventional results is felt less than in the higher grades. Although these experiments have not been formally scientific, teachers and superintendents have observed the results with open minds, and we have now emerged from chaotic variety in primary school work into comparative uniformity. (Our primary school of today, it is generally admitted, is immensely superior to that of the olden time and probably to that of any other country.

The progress from logical plans for teaching to being guided by observed results is perhaps best illustrated in the teach-

¹A little experiment of this kind was tried by the author, in a first grade of eighteen pupils, ten of whom had been in the kindergarten the preceding year, pine needles being used in free and in dictation constructions. A class of teachers who had observed kindergarten work to some extent observed the children while they worked and tried to pick out the kindergarten-trained children. They succeeded in about half the cases; or in other words about as well as if the selection had been made by chance.

ing of reading. We have had the alphabet method, the word method, the Pollard system, and a host of other systems, each of which was shown on theoretical grounds to be the only logical and sensible mode of procedure. Observation of the results of the different methods show that all have merits and defects, and the best primary teachers are now using various elements of these methods that experience has shown are advantageous and least productive of undesirable results. The fact is that if children can be interested in studying printed words a sufficient length of time, they will learn to read no matter how they begin or what system or lack of system is followed. Doubtless some arrangements make the task more easy than others, but the rapidity of the child's progress depends not so much upon the objective case of the sequence as upon the extent to which the system excites and holds his interest in discriminating words.

The chance for determining what is and what is not desirable in kindergarten practice is much better than it was in the primary school, because the children are younger, the kindergarten is not expected to fit specifically for the first grade, and because more systematic experiments and more exact observation of results may now be made. The actual improvement in kindergarten practice may not be so great as it has been for the primary school, because the present kindergarten is better than the old-time primary school ever was. However this may be, the merits and faults of the kindergarten can be determined only by changing kindergarten practice and noting the results.

Doubtless many faithful kindergartners will be afraid to go directly against Froebel's theories of the laws of development, lest the children be injured for life by such procedure. Notwithstanding the confidence they have in the child's nature and self-activity, they have more confidence in Froebel's program for developing him than in the child's own power to select, assimilate, organize, and unify all sorts of experience either systematic or chaotic for his own good. Now, I have more confidence in the child and in the judgment of sympathetic kindergartners in direct contact with him than I have in the theoretical principles stated by Froebel or anyone else. If the children are interested in the work and the teachers can see no harmful results, I do not believe harm will result from any method of procedure that may be adopted. Any procedure that

fails to interest the children or that appears to kindergartners to produce immediate harmful results need not be long continued.

By interest I do not mean mere amusement supplied by someone else; I mean rather the child's enjoyment of what he is himself doing; and I measure it not by its momentary intensity, but by the length of time it continues, the amount of activity it calls forth, the extent to which it leads to other more complex activities and especially the extent to which he carries on that and other activities without the continued stimulus and direction of the teacher. However varied and chaotic a child's impressions and activities may seem to be to an adult, they may be unified in the child's mind by interests that to him relate and unite them.

In some respects it is unfortunate that the kindergarten was so well planned and so successful in practice. It has had no rivals as have the various theories and methods of teaching reading and arithmetic; the only variations have been within the system in the form of different interpretations of Froebel and in details of the program. There has been no opportunity for the good features of several theories and programs to be selected as the fittest to survive as has been the case in primary work. Since such rival theories have not come forth, it is desirable that an experimental kindergarten shall be established somewhere for studying the effects of various methods of dealing with children of kindergarten age. Such an experimental kindergarten should be guided in making its experiments, not by kindergarten principles, but by the best established truths of psychology and child-study, every interest that is prominent at the age of three to five being appealed to; but the final test of the results of the programs must be the effects upon the children.

It is also desirable that kindergartners both when training and in later practice shall spend less time in trying to interpret and apply Froebel's theories of how to develop children and more in observing just what effects are being produced upon the children. The highest possibilities of the kindergarten can be realized only when, without abandoning Froebel's ideals, kindergartners are freed from the authority and tradition of kindergarten theory and practice, and have become as earnest, faithful, reverential, and efficient students of children and of principles of development as they have been and now are of Froebel.

SUMMARY

1. Ideals of education and theories and practices of education are to be judged on a different basis.

2. Froebel's ideas were good; his theories based on his psychology and his ideas of the laws of development are a mixture of truth and error, and the kindergarten practice based on them is a mixture of good and bad.

3. The kindergarten program should be changed radically in accordance with the latest truths of child-development and the results of such changes carefully observed, tested, and compared with the results of typical kindergarten practice that the good and bad of each may be determined and the best of each selected.

III

AN INTERPRETATION OF SOME OF THE FROEBELIAN KINDERGARTEN PRINCIPLES

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FROEBEL'S FUNDAMENTAL IDEAS AND THEIR EDUCATIONAL BEARING

A man who yields his entire being to his ideals, sacrificing every selfish interest to his spiritual tendencies of loving service for his altruistic ideals, the inspired enthusiast whose every thought and word and deed bears the imprint of his devotion to his mission, is a being whom no one susceptible of great and noble sentiments can approach without admiration and awe. Such a man was Friedrich Froebel. No doubt this man was the incarnate union of unusual vigor, with a love almost motherly—a union requisite to constitute a person an ingenious educator of the young and a friend of childhood.

To receive and to return love is to the child an essential condition of full growth and the enjoyment of life and happiness. Froebel had an instinctive feeling of this happiness of the child; and he found the full satisfaction of his desire for love in this communion of his mind with the mind of childhood. This trait of character was the key that opened the character of womanhood in general to the understanding of Froebel and made him the most sagacious interpreter of the wants and the vocation of woman. This is the explanation of the remarkable fact that Froebel's method of education attracted few young men students, and that there is rarely found a true woman who on being introduced to the principles of the kindergarten does not understand them and begin to practice them with an enthusiasm akin to that of Froebel himself.

The difficulty of understanding Froebel's writings in the original is so great that there are few persons who would attempt to interpret his meaning; and the difficulty would be further increased in an exact translation.

Froebel was convinced by experience that education, in order to be fully efficacious, must begin much earlier than at school age;

and he engaged the sympathies of womankind to carry this out. He saw clearly that the education of man must begin at his birth; or, to be quite correct, years previous to his birth. Such an education must necessarily be self-education. Naturally, and almost exclusively, it is found within the power of woman thus to educate herself. Froebel looked upon woman as the true natural educator of man. The conviction that education was the vocation of woman grew to the intensity of a faith in Froebel's mind, dominating his whole being. This faith proclaimed that woman had not a holier vocation—if in fact she had any other—than that of the education of man. And thus Froebel speaks of the training of woman in normal classes for her sublime mission.

Froebel's aim was the advancement of the interests of early childhood and the progress of the education of man in general. With this conviction Froebel stepped out beyond the narrow boundaries inclosing the kindergarten and the school, and began looking upon the whole life of man as a realm in which to render effective the art of the education of man.

Froebel recognized the threefold nature of the child; viz., (1) a child of nature; (2) a child of man; (3) a child of God.

As a child of nature he has a body which unites him with the material world. As a child of man he attains through his senses the power of thought, having that which no other animal has, namely, intellect, mind. As a child of God he has a soul, a spiritual nature apart from his body, and eternal life.

Inner connection is Froebel's chief category; and finally he comes to seek a correspondence between the inner connection of the unfolding faculties of the child and that which exists in nature. Thus we find in Froebel's philosophy of education (1) inner connection between objects of nature, namely, evolution; (2) inner connection between the faculties of the mind, namely, mental development, or education; (3) inner connection between the subjective and the objective, between mind and nature.

The basis of the kindergarten is *organic unity*. Its characteristic process is *creative activity*. The law which brings the means for work and play into a whole is the law of the *connection of contrasts*. These contrasts do not refer to things in themselves, but to qualities common to all things.

Every object in the kindergarten must be considered as a key

to the outer world and as an awakener of the inner world. In other words, each object must interpret the external and rouse all the activities of the child. Hence the following rule: Appeal to the thoughtful nature of the child: (1) to his thought by the suggestive and explanatory word; (2) to his feelings by the association of each play-gift and occupation; (3) to his activities by requiring him to handle, to divide, to reconstruct, to transform, to combine, and to create.

Evolution is the principle in the kindergarten work, all things being developed one from another in progressive stages. All that seems merely play to the child has a definite purpose; and this is true throughout all kindergarten work. The child, by the intended uses of the kindergarten play and occupation means, also develops originality by the exercising of his power of invention. He learns concentration and a willing obedience; by being active his hands acquire alertness in making the many different forms; he learns to use his eyes, to compare, to observe and imitate the things that he sees around him every day; his mind is developed by the constant use to which it is put; and he acquires mental activity by reproducing and comparing forms. Thus, by playing, the child's manual, mental, and moral activities are strengthened; and his character development is considerably advanced.

Kindergarten work without the kindergarten idea, like a body without a soul, is subject to rapid degeneration and decay.

The scheme of Froebel's first kindergarten was "not only to take under its care children under school age, but also to give them occupation suitable to their nature, to strengthen their bodies, to practice their senses, and to keep busy the awakening mind; and in a pleasing manner to make them familiar with nature and man by properly directing their minds to the first cause of all life—God, and to harmony with themselves."

Froebel called his institution "kindergarten," because he held it necessary that a garden should be connected with it, and because he wished symbolically to indicate by this name that children resemble the plants in a garden, and should be treated with similar care. In a letter to one of his pupils Froebel states what he meant by a "true and genuine kindergarten," and compares the kindergarten with the German oak, saying:

In a true kindergarten I seek the same thing that I find in the young oak tree, which was to the Germans of old the symbol of power, perseverance,

etc., and the bearer and harbinger of a higher life. The oak answers the idea of kindergartens, as I understand it. An oak is a tree; and the idea of *tree* is therefore also contained in the idea of *kindergarten*. Persons who hitherto mostly founded kindergartens range them merely under the general idea of "tree;" but as birch trees, fir trees, elder trees, poplar trees, linden trees, and beech trees are all trees, so there are kindergartens which are like the delicate birch tree, or the talkative poplar tree, or the egotistical fir tree, or that have a similarity with the abundant foliage of the beech tree; but none of these are like a young, firmly rooted, symbolic German oak, from which in time would develop a sacred oak grove where the gods dwell, and which would generate a sacred race and people among whom the gods would like to dwell. And for this are required a good and rich soil, suitable surroundings, and persons who in their will and action resemble the oak; who, so to say, are oaks. Without the aid of such people we shall never reach our aim.

The fundamental principles expressed are that the thorough improvement of our educational systems is to be secured by beginning with the life of the individual; that education should assist, but never disturb, a free development of the individual in accordance with human nature; that the general aim of all education is to educate morally free and practically able religious men and women; that the present time requires particularly that education should tend to the formation of character, to develop power of will, and to do what is ideal, beautiful, and sublime—to cultivate the heart.

Froebel's education is the safest foundation for the early education of children, holding within it the leading features of all degrees of higher education; and to adhere to his simple and beautiful ideas based on nature means progress in every direction, even as nature moves on, naturally, but unerringly.

Much of the success of the kindergarten is negative and consists in preventing harm; and its positive success is so simple that it cannot be expected to attract more notice than fresh air, pure water, or the merit of a physician by whose efforts a family is kept in good health.

As never before the fact is understood how detrimentally premature schooling affects the sound development of body and mind, how it destroys all the freshness and pleasure of learning, and how frequently it burdens a whole life with the most mischievous consequences.

The first impressions are verily controlling for all subsequent periods. "Make the bridge from the cradle to manhood just as long

as you can, by having your child a *child* as long as possible. Be not in haste to force your child into premature development by intelligence, or by anything else. Let it be a child, and not a little ape or man running about the town." Froebel writes:

Can you tell, O mother, when the spiritual development of your child begins? Can you trace the boundary line which separates the conscious from the unconscious soul? In God's world, just because it is God's world, the law of all things is continuity, and there are and can be no abrupt beginnings, no rude transitions, no today which is not based upon yesterday. The distant stars were shining long before their rays reached our earth; the seed germinates in darkness, and is growing long before we can see its growth; so, in the depth of the infant soul, a process goes on which is hidden from ken, yet upon which hangs more than we can dream of for good and evil, happiness or misery.

Froebel's book, the *Mother Play and Cossetting Songs*, was written for mothers. From mothers he has learned what he has written. The book addresses itself to all women who have charge of children, and thus represents the mothers, assisting them to the consciousness of their duties toward children, and to a lofty conception of those duties. Froebel follows in this the instinct of mother and child. He exercises the child's limbs and senses by making proper connections with his experiences. These exercises are entertaining for the child, and as the child grows and develops he finds pleasure in the movement of things he may see about him; and Froebel draws these into his "play and song circle," so that the children may be in living familiarity with what is in nature outside of them. With this is always connected the representation of that which is seen by the child, thus satisfying his inborn desire to express his strength, his self-activity; and as imitation and imagination are strong in children, when older they may proceed to represent the actions of creatures and movements of things represented in these songs. Woman becomes here the educator. In watching the many-sided development of the child's character, it will be constantly seen that there arise endless varieties and conditions. Within the child there may be found defect germs, as also slumbering talents, both having chances to develop in later years; and hence it should be the educator's aim to strengthen the good in the child. This book was not intended by Froebel for a practical handbook. In its simple form all are enabled to understand its contents; and

it should be in the hands of every woman so that one of Froebel's principles may be practiced by them; namely, to draw out for themselves from it what may be needed in their family. This would not exclude a better revelation and insight given to them in mothers' classes or conferences.

Froebel's aim was ever that his principles should be rightly understood, and also that these should be correctly practiced in the task of the children's education. He provides for the little child precisely that recognition of a "God-given power" within him in which is contained a power capable of changing the world. The child who starts life with the sense of divine self as the true self is safe indeed. And young girls and simple-minded mothers can understand this.

Froebel becomes ever more understood owing to the thought of the evolution of spiritual life. And hence it will be ever better comprehended that, for instance, the aim in setting the child to work in one or another of Froebel's play-and-occupation means is not to tie the child down merely to the mechanical action, but to put him at once in the right relation to the material (matter) and to the Creator; and not merely as an investigator of the material world. That this correct relation might be brought about, Froebel provided materials exactly fitted to tempt the child to use the same. Thus, the fingers learn skill, and the eyes learn to see color and form correctly; and the senses are pleasantly and skilfully trained.

Froebel insists that by his plan the child is spiritually trained. He also provides for the universal law of symbolization by which everything stands for some idea. The symbology of the occasion satisfies the child's fancy. Further, he insists on the great spiritual law that we can see only what our eyes are ready to see; and that we can know only what we are ready to know; and that we do only what we put our will into.

Froebel constantly asserts that our aim is to have life, and to have it more abundantly. The aim is absolute self-control over self and life, and its affairs. "The kindergarten was created as a protest against that power which would retard free thought and self-expression; and, true to its inherent possibilities, there is scarcely a vital life-interest which the kindergarten does not touch. Froebel's system is the only one in which the details of actual practice are the real outcome of sound psychological principles, and

in their application are continuously governed by those principles. *If ever the practice in its logical outcome should cease to be the distinct expression of the psychology, the plan will cease to be Froebel's.*"

Speaking of the historical (evolutionary) Froebel said: "A new creation must always spring from the old; and that which follows is always conditioned upon that which goes before; I make little children see this through my educational process." The so-called gifts show this in concrete things. Ball, cube, cylinder, and cone are contained one form in the other; and through manipulation Froebel makes this apparent to the little child.

Froebel said: "The experiences of my own life are to me the clearest proof of the length of time which an idea, a thought, needs for development and cultivation."

Evolution, or development, consists not so much in an increase of bulk or quantity in the kindergarten as in an increase in complexity or structure, an improvement in power, skill, and variety in the performance of the natural functions.

In regard to the effects of the kindergarten play-and-occupation means, as wisely and understandingly presented, Froebel says:

No one would believe, without seeing it, how the child's soul, the child-life, develops when treated as a whole, and in the sense of forming a part of the great interrelated life of the world, under the guidance of a skilled kindergartner; nay, even by one who may only be simple-hearted, thoughtful, and attentive. Oh, if I could only shout aloud with ten-thousand lung-power the truth that I now tell you in silence, then would I make the ears of a hundred thousand men ring with it! What keenness of sensation, what a soul, what a mind, what force of will and active energy, what dexterity and skill of muscular movement and of perception, and what calm and patience will not all these things call out in the children!¹

"As the basis of a true kindergarten activity can only be built up upon the reform of family education, and as the kindergarten has not had its beneficent influence on generations by becoming an institution of the community, and has not produced enough well-prepared pupils, so we have not as yet the true, ideal kindergarten, and cannot speak of such institutions as completely carried out."

The kindergarten may be regarded as the "nursery of mankind." This fact speaks in itself for the importance that is attached to the true training of the mother and the kindergartner.

¹ Froebel's *Letters on the Kindergarten*, p. 145.

According to Froebel it is of the highest importance, not only for the religious development of man, but for the expansion of all his faculties, that his education, starting from one point, should follow a progressive course, and should advance toward the goal uninterruptedly without breaks or sudden changes. For nothing is more hurtful to the development of the individual than to consider any stage as detached or isolated from the rest. The periods known as childhood, youth, adolescence, manhood, old age, are but the links of one and the same chain; and consequently the little child, the youth, the man in his maturity, cannot be looked upon as different beings, strangers one to the other. Life in all its various phases presents one complex whole, of which it must be our care to consider the starting-point and the ultimate goal.

Froebel considers each human being as a "part-unit" equipped with talents and powers belonging only to him; and as such he is to be respected. As part-unit the human being is limited to certain degrees of development, and has to subject himself to certain laws. The child also has to subject himself to the order and regulations of the family, the playground, the kindergarten, school, etc.; and neglect means abandoning one's duty. To find the equilibrium—this is the educator's duty.

From this it may be inferred why Froebel laid so much stress upon the idea that the kindergarten play-and-occupation means form a whole, and that each part of it, singly, is to be regarded as a thing by itself. The law of the connection of all things shall govern the kindergarten; and this should be brought about clearly and simply, so that by means of his play-world the child may be led to find his way in the world that surrounds him. Lengthy explanations cannot do this; but the kindergarten materials offer the means; and the law of the connection of contrasts used by the child in the kindergarten is the same as that which governs the world, transforming one thing into another. Thus the kindergarten work, being in the service of education, cannot be the aim and end; it serves as a means to educate the child. Hence the value is found in the influence of the work; it leads to a better acquaintance with and insight into the outer world, the world of the senses, and the connection the things are having one with another. To break this connection would be to lose Froebel's idea.

The better the proposed aim has been understood, the better the

method used and the process followed, the more active part the mind takes in what is done, the higher will be the result. Mechanical imitation is the lowest degree of the series in all steps, while the highest is "free creation" of forms generated in the mind. Between these two there is a whole scale through which the crude work of the hand rises later to a work of art. There is no other way to give to childhood that preparatory education which is needed for life.

Health ought to be the aim of the educator's care and efforts in regard to the child, both moral and physical health.

The child is the product—the result—of the generations which have preceded him; he is the visible link which connects the past with the future; and he bears within himself the consequences of all that has gone before him. In him are the germs which may be developed for good or for evil. The main aim is to try to develop what is good, and subdue what is evil.

Education begins from the birth of the child; and, to be rational, education should consist in a wise employment of the resources to be found in nature; above all, it should not be the instrument of the will or fancies of the educator. To wish to improve on a child's own tastes and occupations or ideas is a puerile and selfish way of contemplating childhood, and sometimes leads to struggles which are dangerous to the character. Simple teachings in direct lessons—an atmosphere rather than a code of regulation—prove the best and surest means for the child's education. The child is not hurried by direct teaching. He is taught by the atmosphere about him. Experience becomes his teacher as in adult life, and his lesson is learned all unconsciously without a perpetual "Do it so," or "Do not do it so." Members of a little community, they adopt its manners and morals.

The games of the kindergarten represent valuable appearances from the life of man, animals, plants, etc. In these games children find opportunity to view life known to them in a new aspect; for instance, representing pigeons and their life. When later seeing the real pigeons and their house again, the children are awakened to look at them with more interest than they would have done without such a game. A live pigeon may be brought to the kindergarten; its walk across the floor may be observed, how it turns its head, closes its eyes, and coos; even the flight of the bird is observed, how the wings spread and move. And in their imitation it will be per-

ceived that the wings remain straight, that there is no undulating motion, no joint moving in the end of the wings. The child's individual development is quickly advanced in such natural manner, and true benefit derived mentally and bodily. In this game the child learns to breathe properly, to move noiselessly, to coo with a low and gentle voice. It is not *that* the child plays "pigeon," but *how* he does it. This applies to all games, play, and work of the kindergarten. If not thus carried out, all games, play, and work would be degraded, would become mechanical.

In the games the child learns intuitively actions and their meaning; and a development of the senses of form, comparison, etc., takes place. And in order to be successful, the child has to subject himself in willing obedience to the rules of the game. If the child were to grow up without such willing obedience to rules, his freedom would be just as much endangered, as if he had no freedom whatever. The games occupy a distinct place by themselves. Plays are mentally spontaneous. For the games there should be simple music and correct action.

In Froebel's methods ethical culture occupied at starting, a large place. The ethic faculty is one of the first to unfold in the mind of a child; hence, its training and culture have immediate claim on the educator. The fact that faculty is there is sufficient to show that it is one of the essential roots by which means the child's nature receives nourishment needful for his perfect, healthy, and vigorous growth.

Stories are the child's first introduction into the great world of the ideal in character and life. The imaginative faculty of the child's mind should be dealt with very carefully. All stories should have an educative value, rather than instructive.

THE GIFTS AND OCCUPATIONS DISTINGUISHED

Froebel's play-means of the kindergarten consist of two groups, the Gifts and the Occupations. They constitute one united whole, each one the outgrowth of the previous, bringing about the inner connection and relation of the law as utilized by Froebel; and in this relation both gifts and occupations become a means for the child's development through the application of this law by self-activity.

The difference between gifts and occupations is the following:

The gifts are derived by analysis from the solid, while the occupations are evolved by synthesis from the point. Furthermore, the different gifts, after having been changed into the greatest variety of forms, at the end of the play take the original form, which is found entirely unchanged; whereas in the occupations there is transformation of the material itself, which cannot take the original form again.

There is this wonderful unity of design which characterizes Froebel's given material, and his natural, simple, child-befitting plan, thought out so logically and beautifully. The chief aim of these educational means is the self-development of the child entire.

The gifts and occupations are meant to aim at giving the child impressions of form, size, direction, motion, color, etc., leading him to analysis and construction, to development; i. e., to the exercising of the inner and external senses of form, number, size, etc., in order to assist the exact perception of objects, their properties and sizes, placing the children in a condition to translate immediately these appreciations by external representations, and, by so doing, strengthening the faculties of observation. Thought and originality are stimulated, as also investigation, which, if not satisfied, would eventually lead to destructive tendencies. The elemental powers are developed to logical thought by means of logical action; and the child is thus assisted to give outward expression to his inner thought. Further, the aim is to stimulate attention, comparison, love of order, and mutual helpfulness.

Within these gift-and-occupation means is held a power of suggestion for the utilization of the play-spirit. The ear hears sounds, language, music; the eye-sight is trained to distinguish better, more minutely. The child's mind is being filled gradually with images of actual life, and the intellect is built up on this basis. This leads to comparisons and establishes the idea between cause and effect, between object and language, and between the concrete and the abstract—a valuable preparation for after-life.

THE GIFTS AND THEIR USES

Froebel gives experience instead of instruction; he puts action in place of abstract learning. His kindergarten gifts are nothing but the working-out of his theory. The ball of the first gift is the primitive form from whence issue all the others. This gift consists

of six worsted balls, each ball having one color of the rainbow, and represents the elements for intuition; form, color, motion, direction, material—all gained through playful exercise.

The ball on a string illustrates swinging motions, revolving motions, pulling and pushing motions, hopping motions. Grasping and catching the ball strengthens the muscles of the hand and arm; and the eye is educated at the same time. The games with the ball in the open air excite the healthy action of the entire body. They are the best teachers of gymnastics for the child; as, for instance when the ball hops the child may hop. Swinging the ball on the string the child may not only play "tic-tac," like a pendulum, or "ding-dong," like the church bells, but he may receive ideas of "here-there," "front-back," "right-left," "up-down," "slowly-quickly," "near-far," etc.

Whatever is expressed in the playful instructions should be articulated accurately and distinctly, in order to develop the organs of speech. If children are taught to speak well before they learn to read, they will not require special instruction in the art of reading with expression.

To catch the ball, all the child's energy is required. The mind's development must be assisted in its first stages.

The second gift, which consists of four bodies—the sphere, cube, cylinder, and cone—represents contrast of form, and addresses the intellectual rather than the physical nature of the child. Revolution upon the axis of each body gives intuition of the inner relation of these bodies.

With the child, its first play-object should be succeeded by others which give the earliest opportunity for instituting comparison. In the cube of the second gift Froebel offers the primitive form of crystalline action. The two contrasts, sphere and cube, are connected by the cylinder and the cone—which participate in the qualities of the two other forms. By revolving these four fundamental bodies the child discovers the relation that exists between the sphere, cube, cylinder, and cone. To these four bodies can be retraced all forms and existing bodies. And this second gift thus constitutes the pivot of the play-and-occupation materials proposed by Froebel. "Innocent plays" are connected with the use of these bodies.

The third gift is a cube $2 \times 2 \times 2$, divided once in each direction, resulting in eight equal smaller cubes. Here, as also in the follow-

ing three building gifts, both the intellectual and the physical nature of the child are exercised.

Without a division or resolution into its component parts, the examination and thorough knowledge of any substance is impossible. The study of material knowledge serves as a basis for the study of the intellectual things; and divisions arbitrarily chosen leave no clear idea in the mind. It is therefore indispensable that all divisions be regular and conformable to "law," even as nature. In the third year the child endeavors to investigate the interior construction of things. This was what suggested to Froebel the divided cube as a plaything; and it is designed to foster the spirit of investigation in the young mind, while at the same time it stays the destructive element. The cube is separated, and its several parts are again united so as to form a new whole form. Little stories, comparisons, conversations, aid the child in the expression of his own ideas. The child divides the cube into two, four, and eight equal parts, offering a means by which the child may acquire mathematical conceptions. Such forms are, therefore, termed forms of knowledge; they correspond to the forms of knowledge in logic. For instance: The eight cubes can be placed in line, and the one-inch checkers—which correspond to the part-cubes of the third gift—will be of great assistance for the guidance of the child. Placing the eight cubes in line, they may be connected, subdivided into halves, quarters and eighths.

The exercises may be varied in this manner:

1. Make the cube; take the two upper front cubes and place them upon the two upper rear cubes, and the form represents a miniature chair—for father or mother.
2. This chair may be divided—resulting in two chairs.
3. These two equal chairs may be placed back to back—resulting in the form of a house, etc.; always one form being the out-growth of the previous one until finally the cube has been formed again.

With each of these forms some instructive remarks may be connected, or some truth inculcated.

Rhythm can be taught by means of simple symmetrical forms. Their object is to cultivate the sense of the beautiful and the esthetic—the result of order and harmony. These forms train the eye to see quickly and distinctly, and the feelings to reject what is unsightly, inharmonious, and untidy.

These forms are again brought about in continuous steps, having a solid center of four small cubes, and revolving the other four cubes symmetrically around this central square, adhering to the "law of opposites;" i. e., if, for instance, an upper cube is moved to the left, the lower corresponding cube is moved to the right; if the left-side cube is moved forward, the right-side cube is moved toward the rear; etc. The child exercises his mental powers and learns to express himself. After each exercise or sequence the child is left to the full freedom of using the blocks.

The basis of the kindergarten gifts is mathematical; they illustrate successively the solid, the plane, the line, and the point. The progress from the undivided bodies to separate and independent elements further on awakens the mind.

The earlier gifts are rich in suggestions, while the derived gifts extend the former range. The object pursued is to aid the mind to abstract essential qualities of objects by the presentation of striking contrasts, and lead to classification of external objects by the presentation of typical forms. They illustrate simple truths through simple application, and stimulate creative activity. The natural tendency of thought is thus accelerated by carefully abstracting from material things their essential qualities.

Each gift throws some distinctive attribute into relief. In the first gift there is contrast of color; in the second gift contrast of form is found; the third gift offers contrast of size; the fourth gift offers contrast of dimensions; the fifth gift gives contrast of angles and number; the sixth gift presents proportion of different parts in respect to size and facility to inclose space.

All exercises with the gifts can be grouped under three distinct heads, viz.: (1) forms of life—i. e., objects we see around us; (2) forms of beauty or symmetry; (3) forms of knowledge or mathematical forms.

The thinking, searching, parting, and dividing processes of the understanding—that is, analyzing—should be preceded by the taking-apart—that is, analyzing—of the solid bodies; for an arbitrary division can never lead to clear representations. The next step is the transition to the plane given in the thin wooden tablets in the form of simple mathematical ground-forms.

With the tablets, the seventh gift, the child can no longer represent real objects, as was done with the building-blocks, but only pic-

tures of these. The shape of the tablets is of two kinds, square and triangular. The latter are again divided into four kinds of tablets, viz., right-angled isosceles triangles, equilateral triangles, right-angled scalene triangles and obtuse-angled isosceles triangles.

The forms made with each kind of these tablets are again grouped under three heads; life forms, symmetrical forms, and forms of knowledge. The child proceeds slowly, and connections are made with objects surrounding him and with his experiences. The combinations of forms in each series are numberless; but the elementary forms are few in number and limited in variety.

The connected and disconnected slats of the eighth and ninth gifts render the contrast of form even more striking by the child's self-production of the same. These slats represent partly the surface and partly the edge of the forms of the previous gift. The connected slats, by means of rivets which connect the ten equal slats, can be shifted into various outline forms, grading the process by number and in the slat-interlacing of the ninth gift single slats are interlaced into a variety of forms. These gifts form a starting-point for becoming acquainted with angles and the direction of lines; parallel lines are distinctly seen, and geometrical outline forms are easily derived by the child's own effort.

With the single disconnected slat not only direction of lines are playfully reviewed, but the slat can be used for measurement; the elasticity of the pliable slat offers many happy exercises in regard to sound and rhythm; while the interlacing of many slats leads the child again necessarily to the exercising of the law of opposites, to the appreciation of forms of use and forms of symmetry. It is the perfect simplicity that makes the play-work so clear and strong.

In the tenth gift, stick-laying, the little sticks from one to five inches long represent the embodied edges of the cube, carrying the child another step in advance from the concrete to the abstract. The sticks form the material for making outlines of objects, sketching outline-forms with embodied lines. The child receives at first only one stick, gradually increasing the number, which are held together with a string. In opening such a little bundle the child instinctively divides the bundle of five or six or ten sticks into five or six or ten units. The possibility of these sticks in the development of forms of life (forms of objects surrounding child-life), forms of symmetry, and forms of knowledge is capable of worthily engrossing the

maturer mind and intellect. The imagination of the little ones is a factor without limit. Its material can lead the child to the different avenues of observing wooden objects and their uses, as also to nature whence the stick has been derived. The network of squares on the kindergarten tables is here again a valuable guide. The sticks are admirably adapted to teach numbers and the rudiments of the rules of arithmetic.

The letters of the alphabet can also be laid and may be combined into short words, if the child is sufficiently advanced to do so of his own accord. Froebel gives an excellent example of this in his letter to his god-child. The main point of this gift, again, is that the child develops through creative activity.

The eleventh gift, ring-laying, consists of wire rings or circles and half-rings, of three sizes: one inch, one and a half, and two inches, respectively, in diameter. By means of these the child becomes familiarized with the properties of the curved line, by laying them in different positions and arranging them in various ways and combinations. The symmetrical forms predominate in this gift. The method is the same as in stick-laying; number is the guide. The material of these rings becomes a new point of interest. And finally the tenth and eleventh gifts are used combinedly, always adhering to the method, yet after each exercise giving the child freedom to shape and form as he pleases.

In the twelfth gift, the thread-game, a worsted thread of bright color, representing the pliable line, is used. Its ends are joined illustrating the circle as an equally distant line from its center; this the child has to arrange himself. The thread must be saturated in water and is used upon the surface of a wet slate to which it adheres; and with a little stick or slate pencil and the fingers the thread is moved about to produce the three groups of forms. This is "drawing with a given pliable line." The dry thread is also used for various hand games, "cat's cradle" for one. Also knots can be made in pretty variety, letting number take the lead. An amount of general knowledge will again be acquired; the materials—the thread, slate, and water—inducing the child to bring forth his little store of facts.

The thirteenth gift, the embodied point, represents the smallest portion of the body. Seeds, pebbles, or small shells may be used, such as are qualified to form lines. The materials lead to grouping and assorting, the aim being to make the habits of the mind and

body orderly, practical, and logical. The material is again used in relation to the network of lines, and in accordance with the three groups of forms found in all of the previous gifts. Points are joined to form lines; and lines of various directions are combined to make outline forms.

THE OCCUPATIONS AND THEIR USES

In the occupations of the kindergarten the material is of a more flexible kind than that used in the gifts; but the same general principles are applied. The occupations are evolved by synthesis from the point; and there is transformation of the material itself which cannot take the original form again.

The occupations have a far higher aim than merely to develop dexterity of the hand; for this would degrade them to mere mechanical work by leaving the principle and aim of the kindergarten entirely out of sight. In the first occupation the point is simply treated. Perforating is one of those occupations of the kindergarten which are greatly misunderstood. This occupation represents that which is beautiful, not only because it is the child's activity, but mostly because it is the child's invention. The child gains the habit of seeing sharply and accurately, of judging distances and directions; and the intellectual faculties are called into action while the child is perforating the various forms. The most important feature is the effect on the esthetic nature. And the product of his activity not only gives pleasure to the child, but serves also to give joy to others. Mathematical intuitions are brought near the child by his own effort, but also an opportunity is given to impress on the mind forms of things that surround us. A piece of card is given, covered with the usual network of lines; and upon this the child finds and marks—perforates—his forms with a coarse pricker. Illustrations of contrast similar to those illustrated in the gifts are further applied in all the occupations. The true kindergarten idea is centered in the all-pervading connection between the things of sense and the things of thought. According to law the mind moves from the known to the unknown. The first use of the occupations is to train the eye and mind to become ready servants of the will. Froebel uses the full-grown and the mature human being in the babe. Therefore his method is that of

nature herself, which always has reference to the whole, and keeps the end in view in all the phases of development.

The second occupation, sewing-out, calls the dexterity of the hands and fingers and the muscles of these into activity, and trains the eye in accurate measurement. Perforating and sewing-out complement each other. Sewing-out may be regarded as a kind of drawing with various colored threads upon a network of lines forming squares for a guide. While Froebel applies this occupation in a way which trains the mind, yet it is often allowed to be performed mechanically. The child, in the proper application of this occupation, is obliged to think, to count, to plan, to be attentive. The inventive power is again incited and further developed, always considering the age and development of the child. The mode of process here is determined by the peculiarity of the material used (perforated cards and worsteds) and the lines to be used. It is a process peculiar to itself. The law of opposites is easily recognized in this occupation. Forms of life may be represented—the child “finding” his own forms. Also simple outline forms of objects, flowers, insects, birds, and animals may be given and sewn in appropriate colors.

The third occupation, drawing, is commenced by Froebel at an early age; he regarded it as an early means of culture, and, as such, demands observation, attention, recollection of what has been seen, power of invention, logical thinking.

Froebel has prepared a system of linear drawing so simple that it is easily understood by children, and yet is sufficiently involved to tax the powers of mature minds. This drawing series is a microcosm of the whole plan of kindergarten education. The elements are simple in the extreme, and few in number; each series has different lines to deal with. According to the law of opposites or contrasts these lines are arranged, rearranged, and composed into larger forms. Ever new combinations are developed, leading the child finally to find the points, by connection of which a circle may be drawn without other help. Children having entered the kindergarten when four years of age will be able to draw these forms, according to direction, without much effort when six or seven years old; and this leads to a correct representation of the curved line, quarter, half, and whole circles.

As in all the gifts and occupations, so here a certain freedom is

granted, the child using certain lines, drawing these either to represent symmetrical star-like forms, or simple representations of objects he sees about him. The creative power will here develop again. By conforming to a certain rule, the imagination will expand, whereas otherwise it would degenerate, and simply wander aimlessly about, bringing forth no results. Even the greatest artists and inventors are compelled to obey some law.

The fourth occupation, coloring and painting, combines the chief elements of graphic art: form, light, shade, and color. The network of lines used in coloring is of a larger size than that used heretofore. The process is from line to surface. Crayons of primary and secondary colors are used, outline forms (geometrical) are made and filled in with parallel lines, until the child is able to produce a surface in orderly manner. This first drawing with colored crayons corresponds to the tablets in the seventh gift. Soon the possibilities of pretty designs will be increased, always using the rule of "freedom" with certain limitations. The brush will be substituted for the crayon, when the child experiments in making his own colors by mixing the primary colors and represents surface forms on a large network of lines. These forms are again classified under the three heads as before. Also, free exercises without limitation are allowed after each serial exercise.

The fifth occupation, paper-interlacing, leads over to net-weaving. Long strips of colored paper are interlaced into pretty symmetrical designs upon the basis of simple geometrical forms, showing that these, when combined, produce figures of much beauty.

The sixth occupation, mat-weaving, is used to weave strips of paper into a continuous web, representing a surface, teaching the child combination of colors and calculation of numbers, to produce patterns within the limitation of the first five numbers. This leads again to an independent effort, resulting in free-weaving, easy cane-work, and basket-making.

The seventh occupation, paper-folding, consists in bending and folding over the edges and corners of a given piece of paper—square, oblong, triangular, or circular. This occupation applies to the child's sense of form, of place, number, and size, as well as of objects resembling the forms folded. Valuable instruction is here again interspersed. Fundamental mathematics are thus taught to the child up to the tenth year, and are then elevated to ideas. Hence,

this occupation, after having served as a means of play and employment in the kindergarten, becomes for the same child, later, an esthetic, technical means of culture.

The eighth occupation, paper-cutting and mounting, represents the separation of the surface and the reunion of the parts to a whole form. Analysis and synthesis are here combined. This occupation also corresponds to the tablets. A 5×5" square piece of paper is folded into an eight-fold double triangular ground form, containing a network of lines upon its upper surface; and by this the child is guided to cut the ground-form vertically, horizontally, diagonally; i. e., once or twice in parallel lines; or, as advancement takes place, parts of the form are cut out; and the form and its parts are then assorted, rearranged, and mounted symmetrically. It is drawing with scissors without pencil-marks, the only guidance being found in the network of lines on the ground-form. The forms of knowledge thus cut from the ground-form are based upon geometrical calculation. Free cutting is cultivated after the regular exercises.

The ninth occupation, pea-work, consists in the connection of peas and sticks, to form the outlines of surfaces and the skeletons of solid bodies. That which in the preceding gifts was solid is in this occupation transparent. The child makes here again in outline, all the forms of previously used gifts and occupations, geometrical outline forms, symmetrical forms, and miniature forms of real objects. Prisms and pyramids and crystalline forms can be represented with little effort. The letters of the alphabet may be made.

In the tenth occupation, paper-modeling, the previous forms are reviewed, while here the surfaces receive the chief consideration. Paper, covered with a network of half-inch squares, is measured, cut, folded, and shaped to represent, as in former instances, (1) forms of knowledge, (2) forms of life, and (3) forms of symmetry.

Children can easily learn how to make a box; and this is used in teaching them numbers, addition, and the multiplication table by their own work.

In the process of synthesis, paper modeling stands between planes and solids; these forms are now built up from the plane. Thus a set of prisms and pyramids are designed, made, and combined, starting with the cubic form and reaching up to the dodeca-

hedron and icosahedron. Free work is finally the outcome of each directed set of forms. This is indeed a valuable foundation for the future study of mathematics.

The eleventh occupation is modeling in clay. The first steps in this occupation are very simple. The beginning is made with damp white sand on a sand tray. In clay-modeling the so-called "forms of life" are at first predominating. The child becomes, by imitation, a tradesman, shaping small forms of bread, making a ladder, a boot, a hat, etc. Fruit is imitated in miniature forms, also vegetables; imprints of leaves are taken, becoming a first lesson in botany. Chinaware is imitated, and tinware; furniture even is attempted. These forms are developed from the four fundamental bodies of the second gift, and their division into halves; and further from the surface of the half-body. For instance: It is easy to shape an apple from a sphere; from the half-sphere, a bird's nest or a basket; from the flat surface of the half-sphere, a plate or tray. The cubic form could by slight addition be shaped into the form of a trunk, etc. All the previous bodies of the gifts can be reproduced by means of the pliable clay, and used for fundamental forms of objects.

Flowers can be copied and arranged on a plaque, and by so doing the children will be led to discover many things by themselves. The fourteen stereometric ground-forms are intended to be made by older children. The different geometric bodies can further be applied by joining several of them. And, finally, a first step toward the understanding of art may be taken by leading the child to represent the column; and this may lead to the representation of a building.

Froebel means for the educator to go slowly and surely, thus impressing the child far more than if he were assailed by a crowd of new forms, sights, or sounds. And, as the child moves the objects, measures and shapes them, talks and sings, he is imperceptibly guided to move in accordance with them. Conjointly with this, the way is opened toward training the will in the right direction. And as there are many opportunities given for bodily exercises during the gift-and-occupation work, so there are also many for moral culture. Equally the affections and the artistic powers receive notice, while companionship is influenced in developing social qualities. While playing with the gifts, there should be

connected with this body movements whenever possible, thus reducing any strain that might otherwise occur.

From the objects and forms made in the gifts the possibilities of rich symbolism are striking, furnishing means for development of mind and body.

Language is developed, and the tone of the voice is trained. This is one of the points which should receive special attention as a preparation for the school; and this point is of importance. All actions should be connected by word; and hence free and personal conversation should be encouraged.

The process of both gift and occupation-work is again from imitation to dictation, being followed by suggestion, leading eventually to original work, invention. The guided work always precedes the free work; and the law introduced into the guided work, being gradually absorbed by the child, will later rule the free-inventive work. Froebel gives to the child freedom within certain limitations. His careful analysis of child-nature and his intimate knowledge of children afforded him the practical insight into the early educational process that makes his ideas so fruitful and important.

The key to the arch of the occupations of the kindergarten is the transformation of material. The related continuity is here again of the greatest value. The work is merely the means of educating the child. The visible, material production of the hand has a subordinate value, because the value lies in the influence which the work has upon the child. All-in-all it is the spirit which prevaieth, which cannot be exploited as a method. Nor can this spirit or harmonious atmosphere in the kindergarten be analyzed, for it is a subtle one. What is needed is the breath of the spirit which lives and breathes in Froebel. And wisdom is needed, to discern those things which make for true freedom. Froebel gave the suggestions and the examples, whereby he merely pointed out the way and the manner, not meaning them for imitation. The great law which finds expression in manifold nature is not limited. By means of using the same great law, true freedom is attained in the highest possible degree.

Nothing can take the place of gifts or occupations. Nature material may at times prove a greater incentive to expression than the gifts, though it cannot supplant them. Nature material has its own value, being used advantageously to enrich and to expand

the kindergarten materials as seasons or occasions may offer. To leave out but one or another of the gifts or occupations from the plan would create a gap in the logical process which makes it all so valuable and important.

An important question arises as to whether the child should be permitted the necessary length of time in the kindergarten, or whether, as designed by Froebel, the gifts and occupations should be continued in their extended development in the connecting class—the primary and the elementary school.

In the kindergarten we deal with pedagogics, and not with the invention of a number of entertaining occupations and plays. Were this idea left out, the kindergarten might be abandoned altogether. Froebel's series of play materials have the singular advantage of being all linked together, leading from one to another. It is true and practicable that most of them can be used separately, while they retain their educational value in providing children with a useful material on which they can exercise their industry, constructiveness, and inventive power. The greater value, however, lies in the fact of following one another by reason of connective necessity. This is true not only in the connection shown by the kind of material, but also by their adaptation to the age, and mental and physical powers, of the child.

Froebel designates the spirit and character of his play-and-occupation means thus:

They proceed from the unit resting within itself and develop according to the laws of life in all manifoldness. They commence with the simplest, just as they recommence on each new step again conditionally with the simplest, but later progressing to the nature of things and to the laws necessarily resting within them from the simple to the complex, from the undeveloped to the perfect. Each part that is being offered is always in itself a complete whole, and may thus be regarded as a seed or a bud from which necessarily new formations have to emanate. And these play-means have to embrace, as a whole, in process of their exhibition the entire field of the general intuition instruction, the foundation of all future instruction.

And Froebel's practice corresponds wonderfully with his theories.

The law of contrasts and their mediation Froebel recognized as being the law of development in nature and in man's life, and thereon he founded his play-and-education means. Each single

form offered—let it be ever so small and simple, or ever so large and complicated—is within itself a complete whole, and he thus likened it to a seed or bud from which necessarily proceed new formations. According to this condition, all the different gifts and occupations are gained necessarily as an outgrowth from one another in logical sequence; and hence, leaving out but one of them, the chain, linked so beautifully, so naturally, i. e. lawfully, is broken, and arbitrariness or disconnectedness sets in. And as a reflex and impression of all the child's doings will be found on his mind and character, the influence of cause and effect can readily be detected.

It is not in Froebel's plan to follow a program at the expense of sacrificing the true development of the child. The idea is that a program should fit the needs of the individual child's development, and not the child's capabilities be made to fit the program. Neither is it in the idea of Froebel that even an attempt be made to do a certain amount of work in a given time without regard to the individual.

The child is led to find succeeding steps, while dictation is valuable because of developing correct attention. The free activity in accordance with law gives a true measure of the limits of the intelligence and stage of the child's development. And, if doing healthy work, the child will foreshadow the next step following. The proof of the greatness and naturalness of these laws is seen when children of different generations arrive at like results.

Froebel says:

These employments aim at, and produce in man first of all, an all-sided development and presentation of his nature; they are, in general, the needful food for the spirit; they are the ether in which the spirit breathes and lives that it may gain power, strength, and extent, because the spiritual qualities given by God to man, which proceed from His spirit in all directions with irresistible necessity, appear necessarily as manifoldness, and must be satisfied as such, and met in manifold direction.

According to Froebel, the gifts and the occupations contain the universal elements of proper work for childhood; though they must be so understood as to be applied by the child according to the principles laid down by Froebel, or else they lose all their power for good, and may even tend to become harmful. To develop self-activity in the child does not mean his being busy; but that by his own effort he learns to overcome difficulties and perform duties unassisted, enlisting his entire self.

The gifts and occupations must not be regarded merely as toys. The educational value of each must be brought out. Each one is a means by which the child is assisted and led to observe, to examine, and to remember. To bring out a thought each day, making a change at the right moment, and not binding one's self down with iron-clad rules, will be found the true method. Lengthy sequences often forced on children's conclusions, and wearisome to the little child who only just begins to make connections, are not in place, and must prove harmful. Also what may be termed lessons in botany, zoölogy, geometry, etc., are out of place as separate studies. However, conversations and stories about flowers, animals, birds, and insects, introduced at seasonable times in simple, pure language, leaving out all technical terms, but emphasizing the most important characteristics, will leave a much more lasting impression than the most imposing language which conveys no idea, but remains scarcely a matter of sound to the little ears.

Children love change; and one subject carried on for days will tire the young brain. There is also harm in detailing too much in work or play. The whole plan or disposition of the future adult being is revealed in its most delicate lineaments in the child's playful activity. Whether the future life shall be sullied, peaceful, or rent with passion; industrious or indolent; whether it shall be a kind of dull vegetative existence, or a life full of high, conscious purpose; a life at peace or at war with society—all these questions are raised, and in part determined by the nature of and the conditions under which a child plays. In play these relations are revealed in nascent simplicity and in the unity of unconscious life. In the play, according to Froebel, may be found the germ for work. The right kinds of materials are provided upon which a little child might exercise his creative-productive energy under direction.

With Froebel this question of the right training of the creative-constructive activity from its earliest beginnings was akin to religion; it was, in fact, only another side of religious training. "Important as the first religious training is," he says, "early training to industry is every whit as momentous."

Froebel must not be copied; but the spirit and the law he put into his system must clearly be understood. The educators of these young children must not be mechanics of the kindergarten, but artist-kindergartners.

The object of Froebel's constant observation and reflection was *the growth of character*. And the practical measures he advocated have deeper reasons than those of expediency; for they lie in his views concerning the constitution of man, and his relations to the world, and to his Maker.

Froebel, a religious man, calmly adopted in 1826 the conception of evolution as a revelation of the Deity, applying it to a body of facts very different from those of physical science. Froebel turned a microscopic gaze upon the dawnings of individual mind, which is in harmony with his wider outlook upon the world of living men, of history, and of nature, and which must be seized in their reciprocal relations and with inevitable reference to the great goal of all things.

A very strongly marked characteristic of Froebel's mental activity was a craving to bring isolated things, facts, into some general relation. Froebel's sensitiveness to the relation of facts, moral and intellectual, the strong search to establish harmonies of relation as a principle to be kept in view in the field of education, is impressed upon everything Froebel ever did or said. This truth he symbolized in the *Mutter und Koselieder*, saying:

Treib mit deinem Kinde Nichts beziehungslos,
Sonst wird es dadurch leicht erziehungslos.
"Do not practice with your child anything without relation,
Or else he may become thereby bare of all education."

On the vast bearings of this principle are built up the kindergarten gifts and their uses, and the kindergarten occupations in their intelligently connected relations. Man is endowed with creative power—and this is the deeper meaning of all work. We do not work to get a living, but because it is the appointed means whereby alone we can develop the divine possibilities within us.

Children are much nearer the inner truth of things than the adult is; for, when their instincts are not perverted by the superfine wisdom of their elders, they give themselves up to full vigorous activity. "Their's is the kingdom of Heaven."

SUMMARY

To assist natural development toward its destination, education is to begin with the child's birth.

As the beginning holds the entire after-development, so the early education is of most importance.

The physical and spiritual development are closely connected.

The physical organs are the first of perceptible development; and these are the instruments for the spiritual development. Early education, therefore, deals directly with the bodily development, by which the spiritual development is influenced through exercises of the senses.

Nature has indicated the right way to proceed in the exercise of the senses, in the utterances of the child's instincts; and the natural basis of education can only be found through these. Not only physical, but also spiritual wants are expressed by the child's instincts; and both have to be satisfied. The development of the limbs by means of movements stand in the first place. Play is the natural form for the first exercises of the organs; hence play with the limbs is necessarily connected with the simplest spiritual cultivation. The child's soul can be awakened early in life only by physical impressions; and these should be regulated, and not left to chance.

Froebel's play-exercises are intended so to regulate the natural and instinctive activity of the limbs and senses that the purpose which nature intended may be attained. The child thus gradually awakening, his instinctive activity will gradually become conscious action, which, as further development takes place, becomes productive action or work.

The hand—the important limb as regards all active work—has to be called into play and development from the first. And Froebel has many hand-games and finger-plays by means of which are associated the most elementary facts and observations from nature and human life.

In all organisms all later development results from the earliest; as all that is greatest and highest springs from the smallest and lowest beginnings, so education must endeavor to emulate this unbroken continuity of natural development. And Froebel supplies the means for bringing about this result in a simple system of gymnastic games for the exercise of limbs and senses, which contain the germs of all later instruction and thought; for physical and sensuous perceptions are the points of departure of all knowledge whatever.

Froebel discovered a true and natural basis for infant educa-

tion, and in his *Mother-Play and Cossetting Songs* he shows how this education is to be carried out and made the foundation of all future development. And if the full benefit is to be derived from the kindergarten, then it is essential that the educational principles and methods of Froebel should be carried out from the child's birth, as indicated in the mother-play and cossetting song book.

The starting-point should therefore be the training of mothers and all who have the management of young children. They should know how to apply Froebel's first principles of education. This is of immense importance. Woman's true development in all classes will best be accomplished by training them for their educational calling; for nature has pre-eminently endowed them for this work.

The multiplicity and variety of the kindergarten materials as now manufactured have, so to speak, corrupted the simplicity of what Froebel intended; for his idea was to use elementary forms exclusively, and simple materials, and as much as possible of these being prepared by the children themselves.

Children under seven years of age are very much alike in all countries and ages.

The heights and depths of the moral and religious nature of children will open more and more on mankind, and on the educator's deeper and clearer views of Froebel's moral idea, as progress is made in moral refinement.

Froebel took the ground that the mother should be the educator of the child until seven years old; but observation told him that no mother had the leisure and strength to do for her child all that needed to be done in these first seven years without assistants and in the narrow precinct of a single family; for the social and moral nature after the child is three years old requires a larger company of equals.

The kindergartner has always to be guided by the abilities and fitness of the child; and should bear in mind that she lays the foundation for the elements of the branches taught in school. The kindergarten does just what neither home nor school can do for the child.

Although there is a multiplicity of play-gifts and occupations, Froebel limits them with the little child at first to only few forms, small numbers, and simple colors. As in nature and in art, all forms can be led back to a few fundamental forms.

Froebel's gifts and occupations of the kindergarten form only

a part of his educational means. Language, songs, stories, pictures, conversation, garden-work, the care of plants and animals—all are intended to train and influence the child. Example does much for the child. The spirit reigning elevates work and play to educational means; for the kindergarten is not meant for a pastime merely.

With the completion of right action today, the succeeding day has been already prepared. If today by a little effort the child progresses, his courage is growing to make a better effort tomorrow. Thus the beginning is made by the child toward becoming later a useful man or woman who will give all for the good of mankind.

IV

SOME CONSERVATIVE AND PROGRESSIVE PHASES OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

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This article is undertaken with the full consciousness of the fact that fairness and justice can only be approximated in any attempt to give an adequate account of the conditions and causes which gave rise to the reactionary movement in kindergarten education. The attempt is made with due humility and a sincere desire to be fair to all parties, in both wings of the kindergarten movement; therefore, any unfairness which creeps in must be regarded as a result of the partial view and necessary limitations hardly to be avoided by a participant within the ranks.

In days past kindergartners were accused of being peculiarly satisfied with the system of education which they represented. In many instances this criticism was fair, though the critics must remember that the satisfaction was with the system and philosophy of Froebel rather than any individual exposition of these. This, however, would hardly be a fair criticism of the kindergarten attitude at present, for doubt has penetrated the very heart of the movement and "divine discontent" has wrought miracles here as in all other departments of life. History repeats itself in all ages and movements, and heresy has entered the paradise of the kindergarten world, destroying the peaceful satisfaction and pedagogical egotism of happier days in our early history.

The large number of kindergartners attending educational congresses and summer schools gives ample evidence of the present eagerness for better things. Members of this profession are in evidence at all educational centers, studying philosophy, psychology, nature-study, art, music, literature, primary methods—in fact, a little of everything in heaven above, the earth beneath, and the waters under the earth. The pursuit of the university degree is among us and kindergartners are candidates for degrees in all the large universities which have opened their doors to them.

In this article the attempt will be made to treat the subject of the new movement in kindergarten education under five heads:

I. Conditions and causes which gave rise to the reactionary movement.

II. The present status of the two movements.

III. The fundamental theoretical points at issue.

IV. The points of difference in practice between the conservative and reactionary movements.

V. The present and future needs of the kindergarten.

I. CONDITIONS AND CAUSES WHICH GAVE RISE TO THE REACTIONARY MOVEMENT

More than a half-century ago in an obscure German village, remote from the centers of commerce and learning, there arose a new movement in education which its founder, Frederick Froebel, christened "the kindergarten." Ushered into its uncertain existence amidst the most discouraging influences of poverty and obscurity, the new idea called for the most rigid self-sacrifice on the part of the unknown philosopher and seer who originated it, and inspired unquestioning loyalty in the devoted disciples who gathered about the expounder of this gospel of childhood.

There is something inspiring, and at the same time pathetic, in the history of this group of idealists, who gladly renounced careers, forfeited paternal approval and bequests, and endured separation from loved ones in order to consecrate their lives and worldly goods to the service of Froebel, by going into the world to spread this new gospel among parents and teachers. In many respects the devotion of this small unworldly group to its educational ideals is as unique and interesting as the Brook Farm circle, bound together by the transcendental philosophy of that period.

It was a time when romantic souls craved a mission, and all who came under the spell of Froebel's enthusiasm, men and women alike, were inspired with the same consecration to the cause and a remarkable personal faith in and devotion to Froebel. This not only continued throughout his lifetime, but, strange to say, is found in kindergarten circles at the present time; there still being a large body of kindergartners who bitterly resent any criticism of Froebel's philosophy or methods. This attitude of devotion and zeal has been admirably successful as a method of propaganda, for in less than a

half-century after Froebel's death, his followers, working against tremendous odds, have through their enthusiasm and devotion succeeded in planting the kindergarten in the most remote corners of the earth.

While such unanimity of opinion and unquestioning loyalty were necessary in the establishment of this, as of all other new movements, the usefulness of the unquestioning acceptance of Froebel's message came to an end when the kindergarten became an established fact. In the course of events this attitude had to be superseded by a more critical attitude toward the work of Froebel, as well as of ourselves, if the kindergarten was to keep pace with other movements in education. Consequently, as the circles of influence spread away from this center of devoted followers, those who entered the work began to look at it more critically and impersonally. Up to this time most of the criticism had come from those outside the ranks, and he was a brave man indeed who dared to tread on the sacred ground of Froebelian education.

However, as the kindergarten gained ground and bid fair to survive, kindergartners themselves began to doubt the infallibility of the system, and criticism arose within the ranks. It was impossible for this more critical attitude to develop among kindergartners as long as the cause was struggling for a bare existence, and kindergartners were constantly on the defensive for it; but, when survival seemed a certainty, the next step necessary to promote growth and guarantee a future in education was doubt, and a right to difference of opinion among kindergartners themselves. This critical attitude spread rapidly within the fold, and, as conviction was equally strong with all parties, an unconscious and unpremeditated division was the only possible outcome with conscientious thinkers, holding opposing views.

It was a delicate task indeed to designate these opposing parties in terms satisfactory to each, whether distinguished as "orthodox *vs.* heterodox," "conservative *vs.* progressive," "traditionalists *vs.* radicals," "loyalists *vs.* secessionists," or "old school *vs.* new school." There are many who object to any of these terms as designating the position they hold. These would have a third party organized, which is supposed to stand upon a sane middle ground. They, however, fail to realize that, no matter how conservative or radical opponents may consider one another, no one ever considers

herself extreme, and each would classify herself as one standing on this *sane* middle ground, avoiding the fanaticisms of extremists in either direction.

Naturally, the conservative wing of the kindergarten considers the radicals dangerously heretical and revolutionary, while the radicals are equally sure that the conservatives are narrow, unprogressive, and fanatical. There is still much anxiety among kindergartners as to the outcome of this division in the ranks. Some fear that it is an illustration of the house divided against itself; others, that it is a most healthy indication of growth—the kindergarten's sole guarantee of survival and an honorable position in the future history of education.

II. THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE TWO MOVEMENTS

Nothing better reflects the history and development of the kindergarten movement than a comparison of kindergarten conventions in the past and those of the present. In the earlier days of kindergarten conventions only such subjects as "The Threefold Nature of the Child," "Unity in Diversity," "Harmonious Development," "The Law of Opposites," or eulogies of Froebel and the kindergarten were given the sole right to a place on the program. At these gatherings one listened to inspiring addresses on themes with which all were familiar and upon which all unanimously agreed. This was all well and good in the early history of the kindergarten, when strength and encouragement were needed in order to maintain faith in Froebelian thought rather than suggestions along the line of modifications and growth.

Later came those epoch-making conventions when some bold critic, outside the ranks, dared to voice his doubts as to the advisability of keeping intact the traditions of the kindergarten as the best means of meeting present needs and future conditions of growth. Needless to say, there were no words of approval or encouraging applause, but rather an ominous silence, combined with a frostiness in the atmosphere which made the critic feel that he had come ill-clad for so chilling a temperature.

Fresher still in the memory are the more recent meetings of the International Kindergarten Union and Committee of Nineteen, where all the points at issue were freely and frankly discussed by representatives from both wings of the kindergarten, and a most

respectful hearing given opposing opinions, whether voiced by one of the kindergarten profession or by critics from other departments of education. Since this time kindergartners have been learning not only to agree to disagree, but to value criticism from those holding opposing views.

The printed programs of the International Kindergarten Union and all its branches show a goodly array of noted specialists in philosophy, psychology, sociology, art, literature, and music. These experts are not only invited, but urged to give their criticism of kindergarten methods in the light of their specialty, and these criticisms, together with the opposing views held among kindergartners, are shaking the earlier pedagogical egotism to the foundation, and slowly, but surely, kindergartners everywhere are learning to welcome respectful criticism and to value truth from any source.

III. THE FUNDAMENTAL THEORETICAL POINTS AT ISSUE

Many of the theoretical points at issue in the kindergarten profession are mere differences in interpretation, and hence are of greater importance to kindergartners than to educators in general. However, as the kindergarten is being incorporated in the public-school systems in all our large cities, these differences in both theory and practice are becoming increasingly important to all the superintendents, principals, and teachers of our common schools.

While there are many vital phases of philosophy which all kindergartners hold in a common faith and love, there are points upon which the two schools of kindergarten vary fundamentally, even though the uninitiated can discover no significant differences. Some of the most marked differences are here, as elsewhere, due to temperamental causes, repeating the universal tendency to opposing views in philosophy, theology, literature, music, and art. In fact, temperament and training will easily account for the different valuations and emphases which kindergartners place upon the following aspects of thought: a more or less static *vs.* a dynamic interpretation of the German philosophy of the early nineteenth century; the rationalistic and introspective *vs.* the genetic and social psychology and child-study; the standards of civilization *vs.* the standards of the child's impulses, interests, and stages of development; the importance of stirring in the child's heart and mind symbolic premonitions and spiritual ideals *vs.* the importance of providing

the social situations which lead to the formation of unconscious habits of social worth; the poet *vs.* the scientific; the esthetic *vs.* the industrial; the diffident, mystic, and remote imagination *vs.* the sensorial, plastic, and practical imagination; Froebelian authority in theory and practice *vs.* experiment and research for truth from other sources, or better methods of applying Froebel's principles.

Attention is again called to the fact that these are mere differences of *emphasis* and *accent*, as no individual or school of kindergartners would eliminate either antithesis. However, all are guilty of emphasizing one phase of truth at the cost of its apparent opposite, and the much-talked-of "mediation of opposites" and "harmonious development" are sacrificed to a dualistic interpretation of that which a deeper study would reveal as different aspects of an underlying unity.

Some of the theoretical differences among kindergartners have no outcome in alterations or modifications of practice, being merely variations in terminology or interpretation. For example, the same activity of the child may be under discussion, and one group will interpret it as an evidence of the child's "premonitions," "presentiments," and "foreshadowings" of mature truths of significance to the adult only, while the other refers to the same activity as a native impulse, interest, or as a rehearsal or reverberation of deeply rooted instincts dating back to a prehuman or savage ancestry.

This causes grave accusations to fly backward and forward, the radicals accusing the conservatives of imposing premature standards upon the child and interpreting his activities from the adult point of view; on the other hand, the conservatives deplore the tendency of evolutionary interpretation to arrest the child's development upon the plane of the brute and the savage. The conservatives rightly emphasize the need of interpreting the results of child-study in the light of their ideal fulfilment in the life of the adult and the standard achievements of civilization, and the progressive school readily accepts this, but feels that no activity is fully understood until it is seen in the perspective of its place in the evolutionary process, and interpreted in the light of its origin as well as its spiritual destiny.

While both conservatives and radicals have their psychological creeds, the former tend to accept the rationalistic and introspective psychology which is felt to be more in accord with what may be

designated as Froebel's philosophy; the radicals tend to accept as a working basis the genetic and social psychology of the present day. This readily explains the emphatic differences of opinion upon the following points in psychology and child-study.

1. The relation of instincts and impulses to the higher capacities and powers.
2. The relation of desire to effort, or interest to will.
3. The relation of sense-perception to imagination and expression.
4. The relation of imitation to originality and invention.
5. The relation of sense-perception and experience to the formation of the concept.
6. The dawn and evolution of the analytical powers.
7. The dawn and evolution of the ability for abstract thinking.
8. The dawn and evolution of the esthetic sense.
9. The psychological resemblances and differences between work and play.
10. The relation of activity to knowledge, or expression in relation to the rise and formation of the image and idea.

The position of both conservatives and radicals upon the foregoing points is so decided as to give rise to the marked differences in practice, which in turn gave rise to the necessity for a reactionary movement in kindergarten circles. These opposing views are having a most salutary influence upon each movement, and at present we cannot afford to dispense with the views or methods of either group.

Wholesale conversion would be most disastrous, for out of these opposing views will be sifted the safest and best held by each, which will give rise to a more balanced kindergarten system in the future, one that has gleaned much from both the faults and virtues for which each stands. Aaron's rod has put forth leaves. If such a wholesome state of affairs has come about within kindergarten ranks, it is a prophecy of great promise for the regenerated kindergarten of the future.

IV. THE POINT OF DIFFERENCE IN PRACTICE BETWEEN THE CONSERVATIVE AND REACTIONARY MOVEMENTS

The points of difference in practice between the conservative and reactionary movements as exemplified in—

- (a) Programs.
- (b) Gifts.
- (c) Occupations.
- (d) Art.
- (e) Plays and games.
- (f) Literature.
- (g) Music.

It demands keen discrimination from a visitor who is not familiar with modern educational theory and the technique of the kindergarten to draw any distinctions of significance between the work of a conservative and a progressive kindergarten. In fact, to the ordinary observer the children seem equally happy, industrious, orderly, and healthy, and such a guest is likely to conclude that our heated discussions are a case of "much ado about nothing." On the other hand, a visitor with a fair knowledge of modern educational theory and the technique of the kindergarten will at once detect a difference in the conception of discipline and a marked difference in the uses of the gifts, occupations, and games.

(a) *Program.*—As it has seemed almost ridiculous to refer to a course of study for the tiny children in the kindergarten, the word "program" has been substituted for the more formal term.

Leaders in the conservative movement of the kindergarten have mapped out a program which was formerly called the "Uniform Program." This has been in use for years in many of the kindergartens in our large cities. It represents most careful study and thought in all its minute details, and has the distinct advantage of having been planned originally by a kindergartner of wide learning, scholarship, and experience. It was then submitted to the judgment of practical workers of less experience, until, as it stands today, the program is supposed to have been filtered through many minds and represents the "collective mind" of a large number of supervisors and training teachers "in close touch from the theoretical point of view."

This "Uniform Program" is finished in detail and ready for use in the kindergartens of all cities for all children of all classes. The subject-matter of this program consists in what are called "pattern experiences" or "typical activities" which are drawn from Froebel's *Mother Play Book*. Though this was undoubtedly an epoch-making

book, many of the progressive kindergartners feel that it is most suggestive when studied in the light of its period and natural setting; that is, as a book of plays and games written for mothers and children living in the peasant villages of Germany more than a half-century ago.

This program is arranged to meet the needs of a sort of "universal child-mind," and its adherents are strong in their denunciation of any program that emphasizes the need of adaptation to the social situations, in which particular groups of children "live and move and have their being."

When Mr. Courthope Bowen, of England, suggested that only the principles of the *Mother Play Book* should be followed, and that little children living in England or America should have plays and games reflecting their own environment just as the *Mother Play* reflected the surroundings of German children, he was met by this argument from the kindergarten: "In opposition to this view I hold that Froebel's games dramatize ideal experiences which *all* children may and ought to have, and that consequently they should be played by children of *all* nations and *all* conditions of life."¹

While the radicals would not accept the particular substitutes which Mr. Bowen suggests, they do feel that the principle of adaptation is a valuable one.

This carefully systematized program certainly has many points of excellence when used as a basis for selection or suggestion; but when a supervisor in one of our large cities, where the Uniform Program is in use told us that she could look at her watch at any moment and know exactly what was being done in every kindergarten under her supervision, one can but feel that the individuality of the kindergartners carrying out such uniform details, and the best interests of the children of different experiences and capacities, must be unduly sacrificed to such a pattern system, no matter how good it may be in the abstract. Even such minute details as to what questions are to be asked, what illustrations chosen, and not only what gifts or occupations are to be used, but also what moves are to be made with them and in what order of sequence, are prescribed and prearranged. No primary or elementary course of study in existence leaves so little to the initiative and judgment of the teacher.

The new school of kindergartners feels that the tendency of such

¹ *Symbolic Education*, p. 169. Susan E. Blow.

a program is to blight the individuality of the kindergartner, to kill the incentive to study and plan her own programs, and to tempt her to put all children through the same set régime whether they live in the crowded tenement or suburban village, at the sea-shore or in the inland town.

On the other hand, in all justice it must be accorded that some of the radicals must plead guilty to too great laxity in leaving programs to the limited experience and judgment of immature kindergartners. However, they do believe that, if the object of education is to help the child to an intelligent participation in the most significant experiences of the situations in which he lives, this tendency to accept *any* one program for all children of all experiences, capacities, and environments violates the most fundamental demands of modern educational theory and practice.

While it is but fair to the able authors of this program to state what their plea is and that it should be used suggestively rather than literally, the practical result with the kindergartner has often been the formation of habits of undue dependence upon the plan of such well-known authorities, and the feeling that its wholesale acceptance is safer than any variation which her lesser experience suggests. The outcome with kindergartners, who form the habit of dependence upon any fixed program during the years of professional growth, appears to result in an unquestioning acceptance of the infallibility of the same, in proportion to the number of years it has been relied upon. In many instances there is also noted a singular blindness to the virtues of any other programs which vary fundamentally from the one adopted.

While it must be freely acknowledged that such conditions result from an abuse of this program, which is contrary to the spirit of its author, it is equally true that such a detailed course of study given by *any* able authority tends to overpower the judgment of immature teachers and cause them to fall back upon any ready-made program which relieves them of individual responsibility, saves time, study, and individual planning from day to day.

(b) *Gifts*.—It is taken for granted that the readers of this article are familiar with the fact that Froebel's so-called "Gifts and Occupations" form a series of educational materials based upon the principles of analysis and synthesis. The gifts begin with the ball or sphere analyzing through solids, surface, and lines to

the point; while the occupations reverse this order embodying the synthesis of form from point, through lines and surfaces, back to solids. The traditional procedure has been to cling to this logical circle of materials and so use them that "the child will gradually grow into a consciousness of their geometric relations," types, and evolution.

The progressive school believes that little children cannot appreciate the geometric evolution of such a logically planned series of objects, and in breaking through the charmed circle of geometric logic, this school tends to select or emphasize only those gifts in the Froebelian series which they feel are suited to meet the experimental and constructive needs of childhood. This results in an emphasis upon those gifts which are blocks, rather than upon that portion of the material which grows smaller and more abstract as the series is analyzed through surfaces and lines to the point.

The different uses of the gifts and occupations, now under discussion in the kindergarten, seem to correspond to the different attitudes held toward the use of the alphabet and the technique of reading and writing in the primary grades. The question of paramount importance is, Shall the gifts and occupations be used to bring to consciousness the qualities and geometric relations existing in and between themselves, or, shall they be used for experiment, expression, and construction first, leaving to a much later consciousness the fact that they are made of spheres, cubes, cylinders, corners, edges, squares, surfaces, angles, points, etc.?

In the Uniform Program used largely among conservative kindergartners the gifts and occupations do not seem to be emphasized as a means of expression and representation. On the contrary, they seem to be used as the A.B.C. of form and geometric evolution.

Fortunately the day has dawned when kindergartners bound by the closest ties of friendship can disagree frankly, yet for fear unfairness may have unconsciously crept into the above statements the following quotations from some of the most prominent conservative leaders are given.

Through using the gifts in productive *exercises* the child is incited to observe the elementary qualities of all material objects. The qualities form the alphabet of nature, and Froebel has so organized his gifts that each letter in the alphabet shall be almost unconsciously learned.²

² *Report of the I. K. U.*, 1900, p. 51. Susan E. Blow.

Again we have from one of the more recent writers on the use of Froebel's gifts and occupations the following:

As the kindergarten gifts are designed to serve as an alphabet of form, by whose use the child may learn to read all material objects, it follows that they must form an organically connected sequence moving in logical order.*

The radicals value Froebel's gifts because they offer opportunities for—

- (1) Play,
- (2) Free investigation and experimentation,
- (3) The development of the constructive instinct,
- (4) Expression and representation,

and do not emphasize, *save in the most incidental way*, the use of the gifts as—

(1) A means of bringing to consciousness the geometric or symbolic qualities and relationships inherent in the gifts themselves;

(2) As a means of helping children to form the habit of classifying all the objects in their environment under some type form, color, or activity;

(3) As a means of abstracting from their natural setting the qualities of form, number, color, motion, direction, and position, which naturally come to consciousness at a later stage, and then through first-hand contact with the natural objects in which they inhere.

The radicals believe the gifts should be used as a means to an end; that is, they believe that the child is naturally trying to express, through the medium of the gifts and occupations, the images and ideas which come to him in his social and natural environment. The kindergartner accordingly fulfils her highest function when she helps the child to do, with educational value, that which he is seeking to do alone; in other words, that through the child's own impulse to express and represent his social environment through the medium of play she brings to his consciousness the industrial and esthetic and ethical values bound up in his own most significant experiences.

We have Froebelian authority for the truth that what the child imitates he is trying to understand, and radicals gladly accept this statement, provided they are not asked to believe that it is the formal

* *Froebel's Gifts*, p. 8. Nora Smith and Kate Douglas Wiggin.

aspect of objects and results that the child is trying to understand through imitation.

All the experiments of Barnes and Binet go to prove that the abstract attributes, such as form, color, etc., play a very small part in the child's consciousness at this age; on the contrary, investigation points to the fact that it seems to be function, purpose, use, or service which the child is trying to understand; that is, he is trying to establish some kind of a rational relationship between objects and personal and social needs.

While the cognizance of attributes of objects enters unconsciously into the apperceptive process of the little child's thinking, it seems legitimately to remain below the plane of consciousness. In fact, the mental activities by which the mind is constantly observing, discriminating, and classifying objects in the light of their attributes may be compared to the automatic and reflex activities of the body, in that, while fundamentally important, the degree to which their working remains below the plane of consciousness is an indication of their normal activity and the good health of the subject.

Binet sums up the result of his investigations as to what elements enter into a child's thoughts about and definitions of things in these words:

It is almost never a question of the visible aspect of the objects. The responses bear almost entirely upon the uses of the objects. Bread is for eating; a chair is for sitting upon; a table is for putting lamps or books upon; . . . they are utilitarian above everything; . . . the child is naturally attentive to the uses of objects.⁴

There is strong evidence pointing toward the fact that Froebel used his own materials in this more playful, natural, and childlike way as long as he came in direct daily contact with the children themselves, and that the more formal methods crept into his procedure as he devoted more of his time to the training of the adult. However true this may be, Froebel certainly was impressed with the little child's very personal interests in the use or function of the object; for he said:

The child, though as yet very dimly, connects with the something the perception, the idea of a purpose for this something; for example, he connects with a chair or bench the idea that someone can sit upon it.⁵

⁴ "Perceptions d'enfants," *Revue philosophique*, December, 1890.

⁵ *Froebel's Pedagogics of the Kindergarten*, p. 128.

The studies of Barnes ⁶ and O'Shea ⁷ emphasize the same point; the returns indicating an overwhelming interest in and appreciation of utility as compared with the more formal aspects of form, color, material, etc.

There doubtless may be justification for a *limited* use of the gifts and occupations in the construction of "forms of knowledge and beauty" from the fact that there are some *slight* evidences of the child's interest in abstract knowledge and his enjoyment in the construction or possession of objects for purely esthetic reasons.

However, if the results of these investigations are trustworthy, it seems that they should lead to an increasing valuation of the gifts and occupations for the construction of "life forms" and a decided limitation of the traditional use of these materials in the constructions of forms of "knowledge" and "beauty" as mere ends in themselves.

The radicals believe that the mental habit of observing all objects in the light of their form, color, position, etc., tends to mental perversion and arrested development. They believe that all these points should be subordinated to function and should be brought to the child's consciousness only in so far as they serve function and lead to truer expression. In other words, the gifts should be used mainly for experimentation, or as a means of social *representation*, *interpretation*, and *clarification*, through the medium of play. Just as the new education has struggled to subordinate the technique of reading and writing as an end, and make the mastery of them a means of expression and communication of thought and social values, so the radicals would deal with the gifts.

Used in this way the gifts are a means of relating the child to the life around him. The kindergartner, presenting the ideal of social service, throws the children upon their own resources in creating forms that embody that function. Utility is considered very materialistic by the conservatives, but if use is interpreted in the light of social service, it embodies one of the highest ideals which the child's mind can grasp, and one which makes him a more intelligent and helpful member of society.

A prominent kindergartner criticizes this use of the gifts as a means of reproducing and interpreting social life in these words,

⁶ *Studies in Education*, Vol. I, No. VI.

⁷ *Dynamic Factors in Education*, p. 72.

which will illustrate the typical differences in the use of the gifts in the two schools of kindergarten: "It must be remembered that the building gifts are not intended so much to illustrate the real or vicarious experiences of life as to acquaint the mind with the general properties of matter."⁸ In answer to this statement the radicals would reply that it is not only unnatural, but a distinct mental perversion to cultivate in little children this habit of thinking of objects primarily in terms of form. Such methods easily lead to arrested development on this plane, for, as Dr. Harris maintains, "arrested development on the stage of number or color of any other abstract phase of things is injurious to the mind. . . . *The kindergarten has its dangers of arrested development.*"⁹

On the other hand, to help a child deepen his natural tendency to approach and interpret objects from the standpoint of their social purpose, or significance, at once establishes a rational association and relationship with his environment. It enables the child to play an intelligent part in life, helps him to gain control over his surroundings and to form sensible habits of behavior when confronted with social problems.

The important things for a little child to realize in the presence of objects is not that they are circular or triangular, but that they have social utility (or meaning) the significance of which he must gain if he is to "orientate himself intelligently in social situations."

The important thing for a child in the presence of a rolling-pin, a wheel, or a hoop, is not that he shall classify them under certain geometric types, but rather, if he thinks of form at all, that he may through the use of the objects be led to see that being circular makes certain functions or activities possible. The following story well illustrates what radicals consider the legitimate outcome of these formal methods with the gifts in developing in children the mental habit of thinking of objects primarily in terms of form.

A small boy of five came into the kindergarten one morning with radiant face and sparkling eyes, crying out in joyful tones: "I have something for you! It's hard and long and has four edges and two ends!" The precious object was held behind him, while he danced around in fond anticipation of the pleasure he was about to give his teacher, of whom he was very fond. "What can it be?" she answered, entering sympathetically into his pleasure.

⁸ *The Kindergarten Building Gifts*, p. 83. Elizabeth Harrison.

⁹ *Kindergarten Psychology*, p. 6.

"Do show it to me." In proud triumph the hand which held the treasure was extended, and in the palm lay a burnt match. And the kindergartner accepted it as a gift of value, for had it not helped to unlock the great world of form and its elements—faces, corners, and edges?¹⁰

If only that knowledge is of most worth which arises in social experiences and in turn interprets and enables one to gain control over them, this accumulation of formal knowledge seems to be purely extraneous, in no way furthering the little child's intelligent participation in the life around him.

It is interesting to know that criticisms of the formal use of Froebel's gifts are not confined to present-day critics alone. We are told that at the Rudolstadt convention, when Froebel himself had shown the German teachers of that day what could be done with his gifts in mathematical forms, the following criticism was made by an auditor:

I hold that it is an injury to child-nature to lead too early to observing and discriminating the geometric forms, as illustrated in the cubes, oblongs, etc. The Froebel gifts, as they are supposed to be presented to the child, suggest too strongly the dissecting-knife method. Froebel will not stubbornly hold to his method of presenting the same, if we can show him a more normal and natural application of his kindergarten idea.¹¹

(c) *Occupations*.—If the activities which the kindergarten and primary school hold in common could be designated by similar terms, it might serve to bring to the consciousness of both the kindergarten and the primary teacher the unnecessary break between these two grades of education. The kindergarten refers to hand-work or industrial activity as "occupations"—a term which frequently passes out of use in the industrial activities of the grades.

The traditional occupations of the kindergarten begin with the geometric point exemplified in a sequence of exercises in "pricking" or perforating a series of points into lines; this is followed by exercises in lines and surfaces, culminating in the cardboard and clay-modeling which embody the solid. The occupations thus reverse the order of analysis in the gifts and, by the principle of synthesis, complete the other half of the circle of unified material. Many new-school kindergartners believe that these Froebelian occu-

¹⁰ *Kindergarten Building Gifts*, p. 52. Elizabeth Harrison.

¹¹ *Girlhood Days at Keilhau*.

pations are logically planned exercises in geometric evolution, and *as such* do not appeal to the interest and self-activity of the child at the kindergarten period. A number of the exercises in sewing and weaving, etc., are fine and small, demanding the use of the accessory muscles of the eye and hand which are so easily fatigued at the kindergarten age, thus tending toward abnormal exhaustion and nerve-strain.

They also believe that these sequences in sewing, weaving, folding, etc., are too abstract both as to process and product and that, as sequences, they meet no need in the social experience of the child. The activities of sewing, weaving, folding, etc., are interesting to the child and fundamental industries in race-life, but when confined to the production of endless geometric exercises in the creation of products which serve no purpose in the child's life, they fail to fulfil their most educative end. Some of the new-school kindergartners have retained these historic race activities, substituting larger, and more durable materials for the more perishable ones used in the traditional occupations.

These new occupations have been called constructive because they were planned to meet the constructive instinct of childhood. As representations they are more real, and being constructed in three dimensions they offer quite a contrast to the flat picture occupations of the orthodox type. For example, a real kite is constructed instead of a geometric form, vaguely and often poorly representing a kite; a doll hat or doll rug is woven instead of a series of paper mats to be pasted in a book, or hung upon the wall.

In fact, some radicals go so far as to say that the production by the child of his own toys might serve as an excellent transition from the attitude of play to that of work, in that, while toys represent a conscious need of childhood, their production demands a subordination of the process to the accomplishment of a product and application to an end, which is quite characteristic of the attitude of work. Such products of child-activity are necessarily crude, and if judged by adult standards of beauty they will be weighed and found wanting. However, they call forth the child's interest and determination—his self-activity—as the weaving and folding of geometric sequences as such never can.

Such occupations as these easily develop into the more finished and esthetic occupations of the modern primary school. In fact, if

an exhibit of the traditional occupations of the kindergarten and those from a progressive primary school are placed side by side, one cannot but be impressed with the small, fine, abstract, and unchildlike processes and products of the kindergarten occupations. There is in truth no more damaging evidence against the kindergarten occupations of the orthodox type than such an exhibit furnishes.

As it seems best to give the opponents' point of view in their own language, the following quotations from one of their most recent guide-books is in order:

Thus the child has been guided in a logical manner from the solid body through its divisions, and through its embodied plane, line and point, in matter and by matter, to the borders of the abstract; and if the work has been properly done, and if the other instrumentalities of the kindergarten have been wisely managed, the child is ready to build the conventional studies of the school upon the foundation of his objective knowledge.¹²

This last statement the new-school kindergartners would decline to accept, as they feel that no good modern course of study for primary education could be based upon, or normally grow out of, any such mature, abstract, formal knowledge.

(d) *Art*.—In years past the fundamental differences in kindergartens were largely focused upon the use of the gifts and occupations; whereas in the last few years they seem to center more and more around the art activities. The effects of the mechanical and formal school of drawing planned by Froebel have been so strongly criticized by artists that kindergartners of all creeds and faiths have practically substituted the more spontaneous free-hand drawing.

A large proportion of the series of occupations in the kindergartens of an earlier day involved the production of unending sequences of symmetrical figures called "beauty forms." The gifts were also used to this end, and the consequence has been an undue emphasis upon the use of these crude, symmetrical figures in borders and designs. For years the art-training of the children in the kindergarten was largely limited to these forms, but again the artists have dared to criticise the theory of Froebelian art and have denounced the effects of these beauty forms on later art expression. While the artists were criticising the crude and inartistic effects in these forms, the psychologists were equally decided in the denunci-

¹² *Kindergarten Occupations*, p. 15. Smith and Wigin.

ation of their value in meeting the needs of the child at the kindergarten period.

The new-school kindergarten has reacted against the undue proportion of "beauty" and "knowledge" forms compared with the more natural impulse of the child to construct life-forms, which reproduce the familiar objects in his social environment.

While the kindergarten child's esthetic sense is most worthy of deep consideration, it is so closely bound up with the instincts of construction, representation, and personal decoration as to warrant little in the way of a direct appeal. Notwithstanding this fact, with the recent influx of art work into the kindergarten a conscious appeal is being made to the mature principles of composition involving relations of space, line, color, tone, and hue.

Caroline Frear Burk sums up the results of her study of the child's natural impulses toward the production of "life," "knowledge," and "beauty" forms in exceedingly sane language. She says:

It is evident that the kindergarten child's spontaneous activity and interest are toward natural and life forms rather than toward forms of beauty and geometric design, although clearly there are some traces of the art instinct in this latter line. . . . Interest in concrete representation far outweighs that in abstract form and design arrangement.¹³

Perhaps a goodly proportion of radical kindergartners would agree with Eby, who, after his study of the esthetic sense of the kindergarten child, says:

The esthetic awakenings of children begin to make themselves active in a remarkable way, during the kindergarten age. These interests center in drawing, painting, music, looking at pictures, clay-modeling, paper-cutting, and many other simple forms of childish activity, which are set off more or less by the imitative impulse. The chief thing noticeable in all these well-known performances is that they are as yet rather a means of expressing thought on the part of the individual and not directly an attempt to produce the beautiful.¹⁴

Sully also is quite impressed with the lack of esthetic intent and motive in the productions of earlier childhood.

The present tendency with both wings of the kindergarten is to make an appeal to a mature consciousness of the beauty in both

¹³ *A Study of the Kindergarten Problem.*

¹⁴ "The Reconstruction of the Kindergarten," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. VII, July, 1900.

nature and art composition which is characteristic of a later stage of development than the kindergarten. As a result you find tiny children in the kindergartens painting landscapes long before any such harmonized conception of beauty can possibly mature in the child-mind. From the external point of view these results are beautiful, but when measured by the standards of true self-expression they seem to be, largely, extraneous devices, and impositions of a mature sense of beauty in an art form far beyond the conception of the kindergarten child.

The method of securing these esthetic results is very deceptive to the teacher, as the child's love of washing in color, in masses, is so strong that he will fall in with any scheme which makes this possible, whether the form of expression to which he is led is a realization of any imagery of his own or not.

In addition to this mature landscape work there is a tendency, through the use of borders and designs, to bring to consciousness prematurely the problems of space, line, color, etc., involving a sense and appreciation of art relationship which belong to a later stage of development. It is undoubtedly true that even the kindergarten children need careful guidance, suggestion, and tactful criticism if we wish to prevent the tendency to arrested development on the plane of the crude spontaneous expressions of child-life at this period. But in all this carefully directed art work, which is certainly on the increase in *all* kindergartens, we need to be reminded of the fundamental importance of spontaneity *at this age*. There is a grave danger of blighting rather than guiding that spontaneity which is after all the pearl of great price, especially at this stage of the child's development.

The tendency to emphasize art-training at the cost of industrial training, which seems equally valuable, is voiced by one group of kindergartners in these words:

We deplore the tendency to make industrial aims paramount in education, and believe that the accent of the kindergarten should be placed upon the beautiful rather than the useful, upon the embryo artist rather than upon the embryo artisan.

The most trustworthy investigations in child-study seem to indicate the fact that the characteristics of the artist and artisan are merged in early life. They have not separated into a consciousness of the useful as something distinct from the beautiful. Guided by

this idea, the best effort in the art education of the elementary school is toward an attempt to unite the two, so that one may not be accented at the cost of the other.

On the other hand, granting for the time being that the sense of use and beauty have separated into a distinct consciousness at the kindergarten period, these questions arise: Why should one be emphasized at the cost of the other? Is not the ideal that of the embryo artist-artisan rather than that of the embryo artist or artisan?

(e) *Plays and Games*.—In the matter of plays and games kindergartners of both persuasions are rapidly approaching a common point of view. Until recently there was a marked division and varied opinions regarding the symbolic value of games: the conservatives emphasized only those games which were supposed to have symbolic values; the radicals went to the opposite extreme in valuing games largely from the standpoint of health, physical training, and hygiene. The problem of symbolism in games is on the decline, while the importance of the consideration of health is decidedly on the increase with *all* kindergartners.

Little has been said in this article with respect to the symbolic significance of the gifts, songs, and games, as the symbolic problems of the kindergarten seem to solve themselves in proportion to the degree in which they are ignored. While symbolism was the most significant cause of division among kindergartners originally, saner statements are now on the increase every day, and a few years of silence will do much to reduce the tendency to emphasize the statements of an earlier period regarding the child's "premonition," "presentiments," and "foreshadowings" of mature truths far beyond his grasp.

The degree to which children dramatize nature is under discussion in the kindergarten, and there is a growing conviction that dramatizations of moon-beams, nodding flowers, etc., are not so natural and wholesome as the dramatization of the activities of human beings in vital social relationships.

The problem of introducing formulated games into the kindergarten is also under investigation, as observations indicate that little children do not play formulated games to any great extent. The same observations suggest, too, the need of playing in smaller groups than any kindergartens at present have been able to arrange.

(f) *Literature*; (g) *Music*.—The kindergartners of all schools come nearer reaching a uniform conviction regarding music and stories than upon any other phase of the kindergarten program. While there is the old discussion with reference to the imposition of premature spiritual ideals in stories, and mature standards in music before the child can appreciate either, there is a healthy reaction in both wings of the kindergarten, and careful consideration is also being given the equally important danger of introducing cheap forms of music, literature, and art under the plea of simplicity.

THE PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS OF THE KINDERGARTEN

The points which follow seem to the author to be the imperative needs of the kindergarten in the future. They are given with the sincere desire that they may help to unify diverse opinions sufficiently to make it possible for kindergartners, with opposing views, to work together in happier relations in the future.

It is also equally important to point out any of the difficulties in adjustment which cause the break in the child's growth as he passes from the kindergarten into the primary grade.

(a) Kindergarten training-schools should be affiliated with normal schools or universities where kindergarten students could be trained with teachers in all grades of education, sharing with them the general courses in philosophy, psychology, methodology, art, science, etc., taught by specialists, who have in mind the educational problem in its entirety.

While this is a vital need, there should also be a kindergarten training-teacher who helps the kindergarten students to see the relation of these studies to the particular problem of the kindergarten; they should be specifically applied to the kindergarten problem, after a survey of the broader field of the general educational situation presented in classes with students preparing for all other grades of education.

It is true that kindergarten training-schools have been separate and apart from education as a whole. The students were often taught Froebel, and Froebel only—his philosophy, his gifts, occupations, and games. The psychology and philosophy were studied in Froebel's Mother Play, etc., and students had no standards of comparison. They did not see Froebel in perspective, and know his place in the history of education; consequently they looked upon

him as the sole prophet of truth, slavishly following his letter rather than his spirit, and felt that any variation was heresy.

(b) The second need of the kindergarten movement is the co-operation of scholarly men, for it has been too exclusively a woman's movement. In the past the work was largely propagated and supported by boards of women, the instructors in the training-schools, the supervisors were women, and of course the work with the children had to be in the hands of women.

The practical ways in which the co-operation of men is needed are these:

First: A sympathetic, unbiased study of Froebel by professors of philosophy, psychology, and education. Too often we have Froebel dismissed with a few condescending paragraphs; we find him criticised unfairly, or, worse still, ignored entirely. Fortunately this attitude is already changing rapidly and the philosophy of Froebel is becoming the subject of fair, unbiased study by scholarly men, as well as women, who, in the light of the fact that they are not kindergartners, can more easily see Froebel impersonally, realizing his limitations as well as his genius.

Second: School superintendents and principals are needed who have studied Froebel. A large proportion of them at the present time know nothing of his real worth or equally real limitations, and consequently assume one of two attitudes; they either honestly state their ignorance regarding Froebel and the kindergarten, and leave the kindergartner to run things her own way, without the intelligent criticism given other teachers; or, thinking the whole kindergarten situation rather a farce, they criticise the idea unintelligently and ruthlessly. A school superintendent or principal who is capable of giving an intelligent helpful criticism to kindergartners under his supervision is rare.

(c) The next need of the kindergarten is intelligent co-operation with, and a more sympathetic relationship between, the kindergartner and the primary teacher. This can be brought about in two ways: (1) Every kindergartner should study primary methods and aims, so that she can work intelligently toward the primary grades, thus preventing a break in the child's development. (2) Every primary teacher should study something of the kindergarten, in order that she may know what to expect of the kindergarten child, and so be enabled to lead him on intelligently. In fact, the separate

training for kindergarten and primary teachers to the degree we have had it in the past should not exist. They ought to study much in common, and, in specializing, each should know, not only her own problems and methods, but those of the other. Until there exists this mutual insight and understanding we can neither expect intelligent co-operation between kindergarten and primary teachers, nor a bridging of the gulf between the kindergarten and the primary school.

(d) This last suggestion is given with some hesitation because one cannot be certain that the evils resulting might not be greater than the good which would follow. Nevertheless, it seems possible, provided supervisors could have good training in the theory and practice of both the kindergarten and primary grades, that a common supervisor could do much to unify the work of the two departments.

This would no doubt raise legitimate objections among kindergartners and primary teachers, unless the supervisor could be equally trained in the methods of both. It is true that, when this has been done in the past, if the supervisor has had training and experience in the primary alone, the kindergartens have been unduly sacrificed to the demands of the school. On the other hand, when the supervisor has had kindergarten training and experience without the same in primary work, too many methods of the kindergarten have crept into the grades, arresting the growth of the school children on the plane of play.

I believe that the kindergarten is the foundation of education, that it is no fad, that it has come into education to stay; but in order to place it in the right relation to the school system we must have the intelligent co-operation of superintendents, school principals, supervisors, primary teachers, and kindergartners. The kindergarten is in danger of becoming an excrescence instead of an organic part of the public-school system, and it will take the willing co-operation of all to make the bond between the kindergarten and school a truly organic one.

It is acknowledged that the kindergarten has suffered from its isolated position in education and developed many faults, but it has also carried a message of humanity into the field of education. Again, it is acknowledged that kindergartners have often been sentimental, but they have brought a motherly love into the school;

they may have resented criticism of their system of education, but they can never be charged with indifference; they may have been overenthusiastic, but they have ever been devoted to their work; they may be divided among themselves into different schools with many different aims and methods, but there is one point upon which all kindergarten schools stand forever united, and that is an intense devotion to the child and a loyal consecration to what each considers the child's highest good.

The motherly devotion and care bestowed upon childhood, irrespective of caste and position, by every kindergartner, no matter what school she represents, is something beyond price, and, as Davidson has said, any criticisms upon such work as this may be fair, but after all "they are only spots on the sun."

V

THE EVOLUTION OF THE KINDERGARTEN PROGRAM

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INTRODUCTION

The organization of a program, or course of study for any department of education presupposes a background, or foundation of principles which admit of universal application and adaptation. The kindergarten as a department of education has such a body of principles, and relates richly and harmoniously with the best prevailing systems of thought. Its philosophy is in harmony with the highest philosophic thinking. Its fundamental principle of organic unity—which is in keeping with the profoundest generalizations of scientific thought—is regulative of both its theory and practice. Its aims are in accord with its philosophy and principles, and reflect a world-view that is primarily spiritual and esthetic. Its psychology is genetic and dynamic. It recognizes evolution as the method by which the self progressively manifests itself and assimilates the nurture of a progressive experience to its own development. It accepts activity as the resident force that reveals the unitary life of the child, whose development depends upon two interrelated factors: first, the recognition of the child as a responsive agent capable of self-revelation and self-realization; second, the selection and arrangement of subject-matter or experience, educative materials, and activities as furnishing the situations or environment in which the growth and development of the agent takes place.

The kindergarten program records the efforts to synthesize into organic wholeness the philosophy, psychology, principles, aims, subject-matter, educative materials, activities, and methods of the system for the guidance of daily practice in the kindergarten. These efforts are characterized by limitations of knowledge and errors of judgment such as are found in the attempts that have been made to formulate courses of study for elementary grades of instruction. At best, the program represents the working hypothesis of the kinder-

garten proper, and is subject to criticism and reconstruction by the evolutionary method, as insight into the meaning of education is deepened by constant reflective thought, and clarified by conscientious practice. To formulate a program for the kindergarten based upon educational principles of universal validity and acceptance, the application of which shall minister to the essential needs of childhood; to enter the storehouse of human achievement and culture, and from its riches select and arrange suitable subject-matter for its development—constitutes a difficult and delicate task.

In the evolution of the kindergarten program—the movement of which can be traced from Friedrich Froebel, the founder of the kindergarten, to the present time—at least three conceptions of the subject are represented.

In the first conception may be seen an apotheosis of childhood. It accepts Froebel's major premise—that each human being in its unitary life is a child of Nature, a child of Man, a child of God. Only through self-activity can this threefold nature be revealed or realized; hence, the emphasis upon the child as the spiritually determining factor in the program. The relationships to nature and to man are co-ordinate factors the first of which demands a quantitative and qualitative key to unlock its mysteries—which is furnished by the gifts and occupations—while the second emphasizes human relationships through the experience content of daily life.

The second conception of the program accepts type aspects of experience as its determining factor. It regards the child as the bearer of a life in which are blended characteristics that are distinctly natural, human, and divine. It seems to regard the child as a concentration and conservation center; and seeks, through the selection and arrangement of subject-matter, to engraft upon the native stock of child-life, the scions of whatever is most "generic, historic, and characteristically human," making use of the gifts, occupations, and subject-matter in conformity to the fivefold aspects of human experience that represent the sciences and humanities.

The third conception of the program regards the child as its determining factor, not as an individual independent of experience—since in his corporate life he is a bearer of all experience—but as having a life endowed with "experience fulfilling" capacities. These endowments, through processes of realizations, reveal his heirship and indebtedness to a natural, human, and spiritual inheritance, and

at the same time vindicate his right to be called an individual, a person. This conception of the child as the center involves the presence in the program of the elements which give validity to his "experience fulfilling" capacities which are none other than the experiences of the life that now is and the experiences of race life. These experiences are the dual aspects of the subject-matter of the program, which, together with educative materials, are the means through which, in adjustment and adaptative processes, are realized both the individual and racial aims.

In the threefold movement that has developed the program as related to the kindergarten, we may discern a general position, or thesis, which regards child-life as the determining factor in the first; the antithesis of this position in the second—which regards subject-matter as the determining factor; while the third, regarding both as necessary factors, attempts to synthesize them into an organic whole. Divergent as these three conceptions are in many particulars, they are dominated alike by two constant factors: first, the immature human being, contributing energies and activities; and second, experiences as furnishing the situations in life to be interpreted in terms of truth and worth to and by the child. Each solution of the program thus far offered must be regarded as tentative, since the final issues of a course of study must wait, in large measure, upon the development of an epistemological interpretation of experience, to which the kindergarten shall contribute the insights gained in its attempt to interpret and meet the needs of childhood.

It is the purpose of this undertaking to present these three conceptions of the kindergarten program, stating their respective attitudes towards the child, the subject-matter, educative materials and methods, briefly indicating the implications and results of each point of view. The word "stating" is used by intention, since the subject is of such dimensions that the principles involved receive little more than statement; while the presuppositions and implications of the views presented, need extended explanations that are not warranted in this connection. Therefore, I can only hope to indicate the points of emphasis in the subject, fully appreciating the fact that an ideal solution of the course of study for the kindergarten, as the latest development of school, cannot thus early be accomplished, when the school proper still pursues its quest of an ideal curriculum. It is my purpose to indicate the directions in which thought and action

are moving in the kindergarten, with the hope that, although the general position assumed fails to meet approval, it may at least prepare the way for more general discussions of the office of the kindergarten in its relation to the child, and its articulation with the school system.

I

The First Conception of the Kindergarten Program is characterized by exceeding simplicity and informality, and on the side of subject-matter is marked by the absence of anything like a formulated, continuous scheme or plan. However, self-activity is accepted as the guiding principle of the kindergarten, and the activities of the children, in response to the conditions of environment and the seasonal changes of the year, furnish the point of departure for daily kindergarten procedure. Under this régime the educative materials—gifts and occupations—are used to foster self-activity in the children and to interpret the experiences of life as manifesting three typical groups of concepts; namely, concepts relative to human activities; concepts of number, form, position, and direction; concepts of symmetry, proportion, and beauty. The pendulum of method oscillates between the extremes of free play and dictation, with—strangely enough—the balance of emphasis being placed upon dictation and logical sequence in gift and occupation exercises.

It is probable that this first conception of kindergarten procedure dates back to Froebel's own time and practice, since one may search his writings in vain to find sanction for a set program—understanding the term to mean the sum total of prearranged experience that shall take place during a stated period. With Froebel, the activities of the children and the common experiences of daily life furnished the two dominant factors of kindergarten practice. Freedom and joyousness seem to have pervaded all his associations with children. There is no evidence that in his use of the educative materials with the children overemphasis was placed upon the elements of number, form, position, and direction; it is Froebel's *theory* of kindergarten materials that sanctions the embodiment of these elements in sequences of constructive building with the gifts, and "schools of work" with the occupations, that still burden the kindergarten—especially in its training-school aspects—with an amount of hand-work involving great loss of time and waste of energy that might be conserved to more profitable uses.

In the inception of the kindergarten in this country the gifts and occupations afforded the line of least resistance in the system. They were tangible, concrete objects to be mastered by means of mathematical and geometric formulas, and, hence, were elaborated and extended almost indefinitely; while the philosophic and psychological aspects of the system presented great difficulties, and received but partial and inadequate interpretation, the attitude toward them being that of unquestioning acceptance, rather than that of enlightened understanding.

Whatever may have been the practices of Froebel and his immediate followers, much of the early kindergarten procedure in this country embodied more of the spirit of Rousseau than of Froebel. Following the *child* as the determining factor, partial understanding and unquestioning acceptance of Froebel's idea that education must be far more passive and following than prescriptive and categorical created a sentimental attitude toward the child, and resulted in an absence of discipline which subjected the kindergarten to criticism that was as unjust to the spirit of Froebel, as it was salutary for the development of the kindergarten; while the use of the gifts and occupations in logical mathematical progression, minimized the purpose they were supposed to accomplish; namely, the development of true self-activity in children.

It is safe to assume that practice according to the first conception of the program is practically obsolete. Its limitations and failures were due, primarily, to the establishment of a dualism that, on the one hand, interpreted the child and his experiences in terms of feeling and emotion, and, on the other, interpreted the gifts and occupations of the kindergarten in terms of knowledge. With all its errors it contained the dynamic elements of truth that eventually demanded a relatively new interpretation and embodiment of the Froebel system.

II

The Second Conception of the Program in its philosophic and psychological foundations presents many points in direct antithesis to the first conception which is dominated by intuition rather than insight. In the first, self-activity is the psychological principle, by means of which *the child reveals himself*, and, under guidance, adapts the experiences of daily life to his own developing needs. In the second, self-activity is the regulative principle, through the func-

tioning of which the *child can be adjusted* to the fivefold riches of human experience. The preservation and transmission of universal experience seems to be its primary aim, and the development and interpretation of individual experience its secondary purpose. This conception of the program is a more or less conscious attempt to present to children the quantitative and qualitative aspects of experience; that is, to present the rudiments of time and space relations representing the sciences, and the generic ideals of human experience as they are revealed in literature, art, and the great divisions of institutional life, representing the humanities. Thus it becomes the office of instruction and training in the kindergarten, through the selection and arrangement of subject-matter and educative materials, to bring the child under the organized stimuli of typical experiences, the light and truth of which, pouring their radiance through the "five windows of the soul," shall become constitutive and regulative of its development.

Under this régime there are exceedingly definite ideas concerning the organized agencies of the kindergarten, and the method of making them effective. The child is subject to two co-ordinate lines of stimuli: first, typical human experiences which present concepts of deep significance; second, the gifts and occupations which are considered as materials of intrinsic worth, each gift and occupation having its own peculiar principles and laws to be demonstrated through play exercises. Method, under this plan, provides for a drastic separation between the experience content of the program and its educative materials. The situations and interests involved in the former in no way consciously condition the play exercises with the latter.

The first of these two classes of stimuli presents the experience content of the program in a selection of Froebel's "Mother Plays" which fall into five distinct groups. These plays are logical, not in the sense of being a time series, but in their movement from relatively simple to relatively complex experiences. The first group presents rudimentary aspects of movement, process, and time; e.g., "The Weather Vane," "Grass Mowing," "Tick Tack." The second group presents experiences involving form, size, and number; e.g., "The Family," "The Finger Piano," "The Target." The remaining three groups present human dependencies and obligations; e.g., the "Trade" plays, the "Light" songs, and the "Knight" songs. All of

these are elaborated by means of related stories, pictures, songs, and games.

The gifts and occupations constitute the second appeal to the child's activity. Exercises with these materials fall into three distinct groups; namely, exercises that emphasize human relationships, exercises that emphasize movement, change, number, form, position, and direction; and exercises that illustrate symmetry, balance, and proportion. Logical sequence is the regulative principle in the gifts and occupations, by means of which the formal ideas embodied in the series unfold in systematic order, moving from simple to relatively complex and elaborate ideas of form, size, number, position, and direction, all of which are clothed in alluring devices that they may be made interesting to children.

The method of using the gifts and occupations is primarily that of free play and suggestion—the method of discovery and investigation based upon the idea of “restricted freedom.” The child becomes, as it were, a discoverer; his freedom is restricted by the kind and amount of material presented for his play; and his activity, in response to the presented object, results in the discovery of the idea next in order in the logical sequence of the material; e. g., in the sequence of the materials, it becomes necessary to develop the right angle, and to illustrate contrast in size by laying a series of right angles with sticks measuring from one to five inches in length. The child is first presented with two sticks, and by playing with them and laying them in different ways he discovers many different forms which are named; e. g., tent, hammer, umbrella, flag. In the last example the child is supposed to have discovered the right angle. From this point the exercise concentrates upon the idea “angle.” The child is encouraged to lay the graduated series of five angles; other children are incited to do the same; these are again named; often they are grouped under the family idea—whose numbered unity is determined by five—and named “father angle, mother angle, brother, sister, and baby angle.” “In kindergartens where the logical geometric sequence of the gifts is held inviolate, the children play through exercises that emphasize sphere, cube, cylinder, square and oblong. They count faces, corners, and edges, first on the gifts, and then on objects around them. They discover vertical, horizontal, and oblique lines, angles and triangles of every description, while prisms—square,

triangular, rhomboidal, trapezoidal, etc.,—are made to develop in logical progression; and the road to discovery is so hedged about with limitations and restrictions that no element of chance enters to prevent the prearranged-for achievements.”¹ Song and play are the accompaniment of the gifts and occupation exercises, which leads one writer to say:

Slowly and gently, by many repetitions, may be sung sweetly into the child's awakening mind the fundamental concepts by means of which all after organizations of form, color, position, direction, size, and number are based, as well as all essential movements in space.²

Thus, through the selection and arrangement of typical experiences from the “Mother Play” with their related songs, stories, and games, and through the gifts and occupations with their emphasis upon the rudiments of knowledge of form, and number, the child is given a “rational insight into the world of nature and the world of man.”

It is undoubtedly true that sanctions for these theories and practices are found in Froebel's statements concerning the gifts and occupations with their emphasis on number, form, etc.³ The use of typical experiences selected, from the “Mother Play” also finds sanction in the fact that the aim of the “Mother Play” is to present to mothers and teachers the philosophy of the system as it is reflected in concrete, isolated experiences of child-life; and also in the secondary purpose of the book which is to preserve to the child a too easily forgotten past. The fact that Froebel looked upon it as his highest achievement, and used it in his classes, gives to the practice an added sanction.

In attempting to summarize the second conception of the program, its primary characteristic arrests attention at the outset. Here, all is certainty. Here is a guiding principle, namely, the Universal determines and conditions the Individual. By this plan of action, childish experiences are dislodged, as it were, from their solidarity in the serial experience of life. The correlative experiences are selected from the “Mother Play,” the selection being

¹ For fuller treatment of this subject, see my article “The Kindergarten Gifts,” in *Teachers College Record*, November, 1904.

² *Kindergarten Building Gifts*, by Elizabeth Harrison, p. 6.

³ See *Pedagogics of the Kindergarten*, chaps. 5, 7, 9, and others.

determined by the standards of the universal and necessary, and also by the standards of the truths and worths they embody. Their arrangement is logical with reference to their "relative simplicity and ease of acquisition" by the child. In other words, these universal truths and worths must be broken into fragments in order that they may be made prepotent in the unfolding life of the child through the functioning of his activities in adjustment processes of mimetic and repetitive character. The child is conducted *from* his immediate and unevaluated experience into the pre-existing and predetermined universal experience of the "Mother Play" which conditions the experience, particular or individual.

The element of certainty may again be noted in the necessary definiteness of its starting-points, that take some natural experience in the world at large, or some induced experience in the kindergarten, as the point of departure. Definiteness of goal, or aim to be realized, is found in the *significance of certain universal truths* embodied in the typical experience of a related "Mother Play." Songs, pictures, stories, and plays are used to enhance this universal significance. Each embodiment or setting of the idea is a *particular* to be apprehended as conditioned by the universal truth. The number of "Mother Plays" used during one year varies; but, great or small, their use according to this plan necessitates successive points of departure, and the establishment of successive goals to be achieved. The implication is that each achievement is a new determination involving a new point of departure, a new goal to be achieved, *ad finem*. But where is the guarantee that the goal has been achieved? Have these initiations and excitations been translated into any adequate system of purposes or transformed into working power for their realization? The inference is that they have not, since method in this plan maintains a separation between the experience content of the program and its educative materials, and thus shuts the child away from the most adequate means by which the experience can be "psychologized," i. e., "turned over and translated into the immediate and individual experiencing within which it has its origin and significance."⁴

Does not the rational and logical development of experience in this conception of the program, with its emphasis upon the universal significance of the *ideas* involved, articulate with the general intel-

⁴ See *The Child and the Curriculum*, by Dr. John Dewey, p. 29.

lectual position of Herbart, rather than the general voluntaristic position which implies a more or less conscious recognition of the presence of an integrating, practical end for all activities?

The second characteristic of this conception of the program is noted in the dualism maintained between the foregoing experience content and the gifts and occupations; and also in the triple separation that is maintained within the latter series, in the so-called, life, beauty, and knowledge forms. The primary dualism has been touched upon in an earlier statement. It is by conscious intent that the experience content and the gifts and occupations are held as independent realities, the functional significance of which pertains to two distinct realms represented by humanity and nature. Method with the gifts and occupations is conditioned by the perceptual activities of the child and the structural aspects of the materials. In the play exercises with the gifts and occupations there is constant appeal made to perceptual consciousness by the presentation of additional materials and technical elements of universal import. The responsive energy of the child is conditioned by universal, independent energies of form, number, etc., which are imbedded in the logical sequence of materials. Constant handling of kindergarten materials that present these universal factors to perceptual consciousness is to the end that their cogencies may become constitutive and regulative of child-development. Both experience content and educative materials, in their respective isolations, are bearers of universal ideas that condition and determine the course of individual energies and must be made increasingly potent, as through successive differentiations and integrations the developing soul pursues its quest of freedom.

Over against such a plan of action, with its consciously arranged separations, are set the limitations of the child whose tendencies and reactions have psychological rather than logical determinants. The child seeks and finds unity within the circle of his own experience, or he can bridge the gaps that separate him from the relatively unknown experience, real or imaginary, at a single bound, caring naught for distance, nor feeling any need to traverse the seried steps that intervene between him and the object of his desire and activity. The implicit freedom to traverse the universe at will, gives to childhood its uniqueness, and shapes its first interrogation of experience in the question, What? Childhood has its golden

age of acceptance wherein all truth, beauty, and goodness are open before it, and needs neither adult logic nor adult interpretation for its fulfilment. It is the period of unconscious tuition, in which, through the unitary life of feeling, is laid the foundation for the development of the intellect and will.

In its second interrogation of experience, childhood asks the why of things. Having built a unitary world on the basis of its first interrogation, it seeks to transcend its own interpretation of that world by the question, Why? This indicates that feelings of meaning are shaping its unitary life into some system of purposes. Does not this question at this time demand answers in terms of [feelings of] meaning rather than in terms of knowledge? Is it not in thinking the child a miniature adult with all the capacities and capabilities of the adult written small that leads to the practice of separating knowledge into fragments for the child, and then assisting him to rebuild by accretion the temple of knowledge, by concentrating first on one fragment and then on another? The practice of morselizing experience according to the principle of "relative simplicity and ease of acquisition" is an attempt to meet the needs of child nature. These fragments of rudimentary knowledge may seem valuable from the adult standpoint, but can the average child of five years of age perceive or conceive their significance, or establish relations between them? Is it a "necessary characteristic of primary and elementary instruction that it must take the world of human learning in fragments, and fail to give its pupils an insight into the interrelations of things?"⁵ Is it not the tacit

⁵ *Psychologic Foundations of Education*, by William T. Harris, p. 335.

acknowledgment of the inability of the child to perform relating activities that leads to the practice of clothing the—in itself—uninteresting fragment of knowledge in a garment of device? May not the teacher be laboring under the self-deception that the children are getting the kernel of truth, when in reality they are feeding only upon its husks? Is it not just this necessity of making interesting that which is in itself uninteresting, that has made the teacher, too often, a neophyte in method and a master of device? And have we not here the primary conditions that result in overstimulation on the one hand, and stultifying inertia on the other?

Again, may not the practice of constantly appealing to perceptual consciousness, with its concomitant activities, tend to arrest

the child upon the plane that demands constantly increasing external stimuli?⁶ The "passive impressibility" of childhood is not a condition to be cultivated, but rather to be eradicated by educative activities. Furthermore, may not the very perfection of the kindergarten materials that yield such facile results, leave the child—inured to such achievements—helpless and overwhelmed when less perfect and facile materials are put into his hands? In this connection, one may question whether the method that restricts freedom to the discovery of the formal ideas in the series and reproductive activities, and that seldom establishes aims to be consciously realized by means of these materials, furnishes adequate training; since it leads the child captive to knowledge that can give no rational account of itself to his consciousness. Having no real insight into the truths thus acquired, the child lives and acts a pallid and unreal part, since reason and understanding are necessarily lacking.

Within the series of gifts and occupations with their separate classes of exercises—those that emphasize life-forms, again beauty, and yet again knowledge forms—one may detect a survival of something akin to faculty psychology. To seek to develop these, then, as distinct, is to work by the methods of an obsolescent science. Beauty and knowledge as factors in human development took their rise *within the life-processes*; and unless the little child again finds them

⁶ The following incident took place in New York City, with a group of nineteen medium-class children whose average age was, apparently, five and one-half years. The materials used in the exercise were the third and fourth gifts in combination. Noting, especially, the work of one well-developed boy, I counted fifty-eight modifications of the materials in the first three minutes of an exercise that lasted one-half hour. Throughout the entire period the stream of perceptual activity flowed unchecked and unevaluated through consciousness. The objects of activity were experienced, as they came and went, with no other purpose than to follow the teacher's suggestion, "see how many things you can make with your blocks." These activities continued throughout the entire period, being interrupted occasionally to name a form, but without interpretation of any kind. The work was individualistic in the extreme, the social spirit being entirely lacking. The modifications of the materials in this single period ran into thousands, and, so far as I could judge, left only a taste for amusement. No doubt the children "discovered the possibilities of their materials," but possibilities yoked to no higher service than perceptual control by motor activity alone is of doubtful value in a scheme of purposeful education. This observation could be multiplied by hundreds of similar character. In this class of exercises I find a tendency to habituate the mind's responses to the immediate objects of sense impression, which retards the development of higher possibilities.

there, he may seek them elsewhere in vain. The artistic elements of regularity, symmetry, and harmony must be the *outcome* of human situations and interests. To give them separate embodiment and expression, and expect appreciation would imply a degree of psychological development rarely attained by a child at kindergarten age.

Assuming, at the outset, that the child is a being to be adjusted to the typical aspects of life under a fivefold classification, progression may be made in systematic and logical order from simple to very complex situations in life; yet, however adequate these situations may seem from the adult standpoint, they fail in the presence of the psychogenetic problems of child-development, since a child's experience can never be deciphered by the mechanical categories of causality, time, and space, or by number, form, position, and direction; nor can the perfected charts of typical human experience take the place of personal excursions into the immediate fields of human interests that condition the child's life, nor can control over the former take the place of intelligent control over the latter.

Again, while this method of maintaining a conscious dualism between the experience content and the exercises with gifts and occupations, and also the separation within the latter series, is undoubtedly sanctioned by Froebel, is not the principle involved in direct opposition to his general monistic position? And in emphasizing this dualism both in the theory and practice of the kindergarten, is there not danger of perpetuating one of the primary inconsistencies of the Froebel system? An unbiased study of Froebel's general position reveals that as the child gets at human nature through human life, through a human medium; so "the child gets at nature through human life, through a human medium."⁷

And, finally, are these experiences such as will enable the child to enter upon his primary-school work, without encountering serious obstacles that call for an entire readjustment of thought and behavior? The habit of instantaneous response to situations in the kindergarten does not always merge happily into the consciously reflective response required in the first grade. From kindergartens where the habitude of realizing consciously conceived aims has received only minimum development, the child passes into a realm

⁷ Dr. John A. MacVannel, in *Teachers College Record* for September, 1905, points out some of the implications of this dualistic position as inconsistent with the general philosophical position fundamental to Froebel's system.

characterized by two very definite aims; namely, to learn to read, and to learn to write, which calls for concentration, attention, and more or less inhibition of motor activities. After the ever-shifting procession of typical experiences with their varied appeal to perceptual consciousness, and the experiences with kindergarten materials in great variety, it is almost unavoidable that there comes a period of readjustment, during which the child may assume a *blasé* attitude towards the undoubtedly simpler curriculum of the primary school. In more or less modified form, this second conception of the program governs the practice in many kindergartens at the present time. It presents strong points in contrast with the first conception, and has performed a very necessary part in the development of the work. But too strict adherence to this conception may hinder the development of the kindergarten. If the basic idea of the kindergarten is truly great, it will attest that greatness by growing, and—if need be—by outgrowing all its earlier formulas. If, in this process of growth, many Froebelian features of the kindergarten are eliminated, it is because the reach of Froebel's spirit is greater than any of its present crude embodiments.

III

The development of the Third Conception of the Kindergarten Program was conditioned by at least four prime factors: (1) that all education must be relative to the society in which it is given; (2) the scientific generalizations of evolution that resulted in a widespread interest in child-development; (3) the growth of idealism as a principle of interpretation that "affirms the organic unity of experience;" (4) a rational study of Froebel that revealed the essentially dynamic character of the principles underlying the kindergarten.

The third conception of the program, seeking a new determination for thought and action, attempts to synthesize the ideals of earlier programs into an organic unity. It interprets the generic idea in each plan—the self-activity and capacity for joyous response of the child to stimuli that obtains in the first, and the dignity and riches of typical human experience that dominates the second—to be terminal aspects of one unitary process of experience or reality, either of which is meaningless without the other. Hence, there are no hard and fast distinctions between the child as the object of the

educative process and human experience as its subject-matter. Method, by this plan, is conceived as the outcome of interaction and interrelation processes between the undeveloped human being and the facts and worths in his inheritance of race experience. In the third plan, the child is recognized as the agent of his own self-revelation and self-realization, the bearer of instincts and impulses, tendencies and aptitudes, which are the "given" dynamic factors of human life. These factors function into processes by which the individual responds to his environment and adapts it to his own developing needs. And, further, this plan recognizes civilization and society as furnishing the situations or environment into which life must function, both for its acquisition of the world of knowledge, or fact, and the world of appreciation, or interpretation.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS

Here we are at once confronted with questions of profound import. How, or in what, does knowledge take its rise, and how account for the "feelings of meaning" which are its invariable accompaniment? What do we know of the genesis of experience, and how does the vague continuum of the child's sensory experience become differentiated into presentations of perceptual and conceptual import? The ideal course of study for the kindergarten, as for the school, waits upon the solution of these problems and others of equally obscure nature. The best that can be done is to determine, as carefully as possible, the constant factors involved in experience processes, and upon these build a working hypothesis for the kindergarten.

Experience presents three constant factors; namely, unity, activity, and development. The unity of experience exists, not for some thing, but for "a person" for whom it constitutes a possession indissolubly linked with a self that is changing, yet permanent, in an environment dominated by the same characteristics. Activity is the productive method of experience both in its changing and permanent aspects, and leads to development processes within which it is possible to discern a threefold, yet one movement: (1) the *unfolding* of individual life from within from "inner necessity"—which, in its nascent stages, functions through instinctive and impulsive forces that, under the development of reason and judgment, tend to pass into conscious control; (2) the *infolding* of an environ-

ment that is conditioned by the developed products of human experience, or civilization, to which individual experience must become adjusted. These unconscious and conscious infolding and adjustment processes make for the conservation and perpetuation of the past. (3) This movement presents the adaptive activities of the individual—the manifestation of the “propensities to variation,” upon the functioning of which the progress of civilization depends, revealing man and humanity as in process of becoming.

This third movement is the limit-transcending power that enables the aspiring soul to say:

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!
Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free
Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea.

The kindergarten philosophy accepts as its working hypothesis, the unitary character of experience in its individual and racial aspects, the solidarity and elasticity of which are maintained by its constant factors of unity, activity, and development. Education, natural and telic, is conceived as the integrating or mediating factor between the individual and racial aspects of experience. To admit the possibility of mediation is to acknowledge essential identity between the factors to be mediated. Froebel writes:

Where mediation takes place there is always identity in some respects at the foundation of what is mediated, but the identity appears in the opposite way; or, in other words, mediation presupposes opposition in appearance, but identity in nature—that is, mediation can only take place between and with opposites which are yet identical.

The kindergarten stands first in the system of mediating agencies of telic education. Its office is to aid the undeveloped being in his self-initiated efforts to control and interpret experience by encouraging suitable reactions to a carefully selected environment and suitable educative materials; by mediating between the home with its more or less conscious tuition of child-life on the one side, and the purposeful, conscious education of school on the other. Accepting unity as its productive principle, kindergarten procedure must have its retrospective, immediate, and prospective references. It must

avail itself of what has been formative in child-life during pre-kindergarten days, for the adequate fulfilment of present needs as preparatory to the next stage of development.

The third conception of the kindergarten program is an attempt to take the experience processes and products of early childhood and give some rational account of them as revealing the dominant characteristics of this period. These early experience processes and products are to be interpreted and evaluated by the standards of the larger experience unit—civilization. This plan assumes that the child does not come to kindergarten with an achieved self, or an organized body of experience. The child of five years of age has begun all the processes involved in achievement; but feeling is regnant, thought is conditioned by the immediate presentations of the senses, and "the child's will is his unthinking response to his uppermost idea." The young child's mental life has the character of "consecution"—to use Leibniz' word—wherein is registered an infinite number of impressions; it is a vague continuum or flow of sensational, perceptual, and very rudimentary conceptual activity.

The child's first feeble control of the course of experience lies in the activity of perceptual consciousness, with its true correlative of restless physical activity which is not merely an accompaniment of perceptual consciousness, but is the very condition of its development. In the early stages of child-development, the stream of perceptual activity flows practically unchecked through consciousness, subject to little or no evaluation save as it is detained for an instant for recognition and naming as one of the constituent objects of the environment. On this plane of development everything is equal to everything else. The child's language, play, and expressive acts mirror exactly the staccato character of his mental condition. In language, he is satisfied with a naming control of the objects he sees. In play, he contents himself with many repetitions of a new-found power or experience; such as repetitions of syllables and sounds, or repetitions of activities and movements by which the physical body becomes a part of the objective world and is thus brought gradually under control. Or again, the child moves rapidly from one amusement to another, his activities being conditioned by the presence of perceived objects. Gradually, however, the implicit unity of experience that constitutes the child's world on the plane of sensation is differentiated through perceptual activity, and becomes

increasingly explicit under the aspect of things. "The unity and distinct behavior of the individual thing is for it (perceptual consciousness), unconditional and ultimate."⁸ With the emergence into consciousness of the definitely perceived object, there stirs within the individual a vague feeling of distinction between itself and the objects it perceives. This vague feeling of distinction is the dynamic factor in perception which leads to the level of conception wherein the unity of consciousness becomes organized into system and relations accompanied by the recognition of self and not-self.

A thorough study of the significance and implications of the perceptual stage of human development reveals the presence of the normative elements involved in the construction of an ideal self and an ideal world. Perceptual activity, as a factor in human development, cannot be overlooked. It must be clearly understood and used, not as an end in itself, but as a means by which experience is carried up to the level of thought, to be subjected to the constructive activities of conceptual consciousness. To use as an end would lead to arrested development on this plane. Lives of the feeble-minded and idiotic are a constant witness to control by perceptual consciousness.

Although the normal child's life is under the domination of perceptual consciousness, it needs but little observation to discern the presence of rudimentary conceptual activity. Very early, life begins to take on purposes. The child "takes himself into his own hands" and seeks to interpret and control the course of experience. His futile attempts, his hasty generalizations, and general instability of action, arising partially from his lack of perspective, gives to the purposeful education of the kindergarten its primary determinations.

In order to facilitate the self-initiated efforts of the child to control the course of experience it becomes necessary to search the past of child-life for experiences of unimpeachable validity, and, by guiding the child into some conscious control of them, begin the development of a "vigorous faith" as a basis for present achievement, and the foundation for subsequent development.⁹ A retrospective reference to pre-kindergarten days shows that the child

⁸ Stout's *Manual of Psychology*, p. 319.

⁹ See *Commentaries of Froebel's Mother Play*, translated by Miss Blow, p. 69.

has been under the stimuli of an environment arranged mainly with reference to adult appreciation and well-being. His time has been largely spent in adult companionship; he has listened to conversations that were to him a strange jargon of meaningless words; he has witnessed behavior that was inexplicable to his reason and judgment; the world of nature has formed a part of the pageantry of life that has moved swiftly and steadily from day to day. In this "vertigo of conscious life" the child's mind has flitted with bird-like rapidity from one impression to another, while his motor response has reflected the same flitting tendency and characteristic.

The child has no organized body of knowledge to which the teacher may appeal; the kindergarten has no studies—in the narrow use of the term—as a basis for instruction and training. The experiences of pre-kindergarten days must, in large measure, furnish the subject-matter for the program, since they are fundamental to the understanding and interpretation of the immediate experiences of the kindergarten. The child has begun the life of control in response to a varied experience that he can in no adequate fashion interpret or evaluate. There must be a winnowing and sifting of these pre-kindergarten experiences, many of which are neither timely, nor worthy to become a permanent possession to the child. Nor can childish experience alone furnish the standard or principle for selection and arrangement of subject-matter for the program. This principle must be found elsewhere. It must be a principle that has enduring validity and universal application, it must be as clear when written in small characters in harmony with child-life as when written in characters that span centuries of civilization.

Turning to the child itself for a guiding principle, we can affirm that the child is human and essentially social; his world is a world of persons as well as things; his desire for recognition is, "at all times, the deepest hunger of the human soul"¹⁰ and can be satisfied only through his reactions to persons. The child seeks to unify himself with the object of his desire by means of imitation, which is manifested in language, play, and the constructive and expressive activities. Later, his desire takes that form of "social opposition" which compels recognition by "contrasting one's self with one's fellows in behavior, in opinion and in power."¹¹

¹⁰ *Symbolic Education*, by Susan Blow, p. 112.

¹¹ *Outlines of Psychology*, by Josiah Royce, p. 277.

THE SOCIOLOGIC BASIS

When the child enters the kindergarten he passes into a new world conditioned by two prime factors for his development and progress in the life of control; namely, community and environment. He enters into the companionship of many children of his own age, with interests and activities relatively similar to his own; and there stirs within the child the "consciousness of kind" that gradually comes to the recognition that in his response to the common bond, the common good, the common will of the community, lies the conditions of his happiness and the fulfilment of his desires. Here, in a selected environment arranged in sole reference to child-needs, is the arena for the normal expression of the dominant activities of child-life. In the child's unconscious and conscious reactions to an environment conditioned by human interests, we may discern the working of a preponderate principle of Humanitarianism¹² as regulative of the child's efforts in the selection, arrangement, and control of the course of his experience.

Turning now to the progress of Civilization—understanding the term to mean "the organization of human life thus far attained"—for a guiding principle we may learn, from history and social philosophy, that its evolution has been marked by distinguishing characteristics in three distinct stages, none of which is obsolete; namely, the Age of Militarism, the Age of Industry, and the Age of Humanitarianism.

The Age of Militarism called for the subjugation of the self to the idea of obedience and submission to authority. Obsolete and obsolescent civilizations are a witness to the fact that within the "solid unity" of Militarism are the elements of its disintegration and overthrow. In the state of continuous warfare and in the subjugation of alien communities and peoples, which created slavery and established within society the two classes of bond and free men, we may trace the conditions that define the problem of labor and eventually developed into the Age of Industry—an age of invention wherein the boundaries of thought, space, and time receded before the interrogating, investigating spirit of humanity.

¹² The term "Humanitarian" designates the principle that all that exists is essentially bound up in the nature, needs, interests, and aims of human life. It is a productive principle that yields a progressive realization of an indwelling spiritual essence increasingly manifest in both nature and humanity.

Its characteristics are great resourcefulness and great wastefulness. To humanity it brought great benefactions as well as great perplexities and conflicts in every field of life. Its greed of material wealth and its violation of the right of property, have been, and are, the very forces that make for its reconstruction. Bondage to mechanical conditions under an Industrial régime is no more compatible with human spirit than bondage to authority and tradition under the reign of Militarism. Not only are the disintegrating and negative elements present within each age, but the dynamic elements of the freedom-seeking spirit of humanity have also been the constant factors in each age, which have carried civilization into the third and highest stage yet attained—the Age of Humanitarianism. Great benefactions, philanthropies, and great public enterprises for the uplift of humanity are among the witnesses to its reality. Not the acquisition of material wealth, nor the maintenance of material power, but the “Humanization of Mankind,” is its keynote.

Again, seeking guidance in the realm of child-life, we find that his interests have taken their rise in the institution of Home and the life of the family, and in Nature as its most fruitful relationship.

Interrogating Civilization once more to ascertain the elements that have been persistently formative in the life of the race, we find that Home with its family life has been the most constant factor. Against this great source of race nurture and integrity, the Age of Militarism and the Age of Industry have beaten in vain. “The unit of the family still retains its integrity, and home is now, as it has ever been, the primary school for character of mankind.” In each Age, also, Nature has been the beneficent instructor of humanity, yielding her beauty, nurture, and resourcefulness for the increasing inspiration and service of the race.”

Thus in the nature and needs of the child and in the arena of his little life, and also in the highest reach of civilization with its most constant factors—home and nature—is revealed the principle of Humanitarianism by which to select and arrange the subject-matter of the kindergarten program. Not only is this principle adequate as a basis for the selection and arrangement of subject-matter, it also furnishes a standard for evaluating the

¹⁸ See *Introduction to Social Philosophy*, by MacKenzie.

instinctive and impulsive activities of the child, and may determine the selection of those most valuable and helpful to his development.

Froebel names four primary activities that reveal the nature and needs of the child and condition his development; namely, the talking, the playing, the investigating, and the drawing impulses, through the functioning of which physical, intellectual, and moral control takes place.¹⁴ Modern psychology but corroborates this view when it subjects the total output of instinctive and impulsive activities to the test of worth in order to ascertain those that are primarily involved in the development processes, and are most available to purposive education. In broad outline they may be classified as the language, constructive, investigative, and expressive, or art impulses.¹⁵ The child furnishes the energy; but society, through purposive education, selects the situations of human experience as the functioning medium. A single instance will suffice to illustrate this thought; the impulse on the part of the child to utter sound is manifestly self-initiated and clearly a mode of self-expression; but society, or civilization, must supply the words and invest them with meaning. Thus the kindergarten, representing the first stage of purposive education, recognizes the child as the agent of dynamic, instinctive, and impulsive forces; but the opportunities for their functioning must be supplied by the program in a selection and arrangement of the child's experiences, as containing the norm and the possibilities of development into the larger unit of race experience.

Specifically, the experiences of home, the changing aspects of nature, and the great festival days of the year, are all familiar phases of pre-kindergarten life; but through reliving them; finding them the center of common thought and action for the present life of the kindergarten; talking and playing about them, and expressing them through constructive and graphic materials, the life of conscious control of a selected experience develops and becomes a personal possession of enduring validity to each child. Keeping within the unity of home, and nature in its relation to home life, the various exercises of the kindergarten—its songs, stories, plays, games, gifts, and occupations—take on the essential

¹⁴ *Education of Man*, pp. 49-93.

¹⁵ See *School and Society*, by Dr. John Dewey, chap. 2.

character of studies, since they are the means by which the "individual gains control over, and help in the interpretation of his own experience."¹⁶

But the office of the kindergarten is not fulfilled by selecting suitable experiences and educative materials as stimuli for childish activities. The experiences of childhood must not only be organized, they must be amplified, enriched, and corrected by means of the riches of human experience as represented in art, music, and literature. In beautiful pictures, the child may see himself and his interests projected as upon a screen. In music and song the feelings of meaning that stir within the mind become articulate. In the story, which presents the known experience in an ideal form, the child may leave the field of personal experience, and enter the storehouse of race-experience, from which he may return with a measure for his own life and spirit. The movement that began in the concrete experience of the child's own world has gone out into the related unknown and returned freighted with an increase of joy in a world whose enriched content expands heart and soul, strengthens the mind, and unfolds life in power and freedom. "Thus the pupil in a great meandering circuit has returned to the home from which he started on his explorations of nature and the outer world, has returned to the center of all earthly human endeavor."¹⁷ Out of the remembered past, in the social relationships of the present, and in the forward reach of the mind, the factors of conscious development evolve, begin their functioning, and institute the life of purposeful control of experience, marking the beginning of that ideal construction of self that fashions thought and behavior in harmony with the requirements of the environment, which includes the relationship of the individual to other selves and their relationship to him.

There is no warrant for introducing into the kindergarten, materials and experiences that have no functional value in either retrospective or immediate reference to child-development. It is conscious control of what has been and now is that constitutes the problem of the kindergarten. In the movement that harmonizes these two aspects of experience is generated the prospective refer-

¹⁶ See "College Course in Principles of Education," by Dr. MacVannel, in *School Record*, February, 1906.

¹⁷ *Education of Man*, p. 261.

ence of the program, since "that which is intrinsically best in any particular stage of development is the best possible preparation for the stage that is to come."¹⁸

The third conception of the program makes use of the gifts and occupations as means, and not as ends in themselves. In truth they are all occupations, since in the hands of children they are the means of expressing some form of human experience, whether it be building (plays with blocks), modeling in clay or sand, sewing, weaving, cutting, painting, or drawing. They are the materials by means of which the child may express himself. They facilitate physical development, and they further the development of constructive and artistic impulses. Their functional significance in furthering the processes of control is fundamental; and the structural elements of form, number, position, and direction are subordinate to the vital interests of the experience content of the program. In the natural constructive and graphic plays of children, object-forms predominate over those of knowledge—form, size, etc., or of beauty—forms of symmetry and proportion. Wherever forms of knowledge or symmetry appear they are considered incidental to the life-forms, which, from the child's standpoint, are the centralizing element throughout.

METHOD AND ITS DETERMINATION

The principle that determines the attitude towards the child, and the selection of subject-matter and educative materials, determines also the method. It is in the light of the aim of the kindergarten and its place in the educational system that method becomes intelligible as measures, or plans of action for the control of experience, initiated by the child and supplemented by guidance that distinguishes clearly between method and device.

Method is conceived as the way in which certain mentally conditioned tendencies of the child arise and gradually eliminate excessive restless and aimless response, in favor of increasingly purposeful measures of control. (This movement of method can be traced in imitative reactions, in constructive and graphic activities, in the acquisition of language, etc.) Eagerness, restlessness, and persistent action accompany the child's efforts to control experience. Herein lies the sanction of the teacher's office,

¹⁸ *Meanings of Education*, by Dr. Butler, p. 146.

which is to devise ways and means—both in the selection and arrangement of subject-matter and in the use of educative materials—that shall facilitate the child's method of organization of experience. Device, in education, under this régime loses its stigma, since it is the teacher's plan of action in response to the child's initiative. The given experience or situation to be controlled is the factor that calls forth "rational interest." The ways and means of expression, as facilitating control of the given situation, must be absolutely conditioned by the character of the child's initiative and the nature of the given experience.

In the third conception of the program, the gifts and occupations are the ways and means used in the kindergarten for the functioning of childish activities, in which it is possible to trace the evolution of conscious purpose. Activities that begin in free play and aimless response pass into self-imitation, and from imitation of self to imitation of others. This stage is marked by increasing susceptibility to suggestion, which gradually passes into the stage wherein the will can withhold action and accept direction, until, finally, the child moves again into free play that is no longer aimless but purposeful. In the evolution of conscious purpose the child is given opportunities for inventing plans. Powers of concentration and will are exercised in executing them. Skill and judgment are constantly developed in constructive plays, and in the comparison, by the child, of the results of his own play with that of others. Method is flexible when it utilizes the child's initiatives, and permits their free expression in spelling out, through play, the meanings of experience, real or vicarious. The teacher is a master of method in being "far more passive and following than categorical and prescriptive." In her dual office as guide and interpreter she can evaluate the activities of the child's experience in the light of the larger unit of race-experience; she can guide the child in the exercise of powers whose functioning best fulfils the conditions of his development; and by means of suggestion and correction she can lead the child to clearer thinking, and to consciously controlled activities.

RESTATEMENT OF AIMS AND GUIDING PRINCIPLES

It is clear, then, that the kindergarten does not exist for itself, but for a purpose. Its office is not final; it is mediatory and

transitional. Past experiences of childhood are here re-collected, reproduced, and reconstructed. The present life of the kindergarten must be reinforced and interpreted by these previously familiar experiences. Past and present experiences are, alike, to be substantialized and enriched by the related experiences of the race. Materials and devices are but ways and means to the increasing control of self and the organization of experience—and all to what end? That each child may become, in reality, what he is potentially—a center of freedom, self-controlled under conditions that he can only partially control.

Dominated by the principle of Humanitarianism, the third conception of the program finds, in the distinctly human aspects of individual and race-experience, an indissoluble unity. On the side of the individual, the differentiating and integrating factors are psychological attitudes and activities—experience-fulfilling capacities. On the side of the race, the differentiating and integrating factors are sociological activities and values. To insist that either one—the child or the race—is ultimate, is to rob the remaining one of its vital coefficient. Had the race no patrimony to transmit; had posterity no capacity to receive and transform its inheritance into an ascending knowledge and appreciation, the history of civilization, as a record of human struggle and achievement, had never been written. The educational position that recognizes the essential unity and necessary interaction between these organically related factors makes for *a wise conservatism and a rational progress*.

THE PROSPECTIVE REFERENCE OF THE KINDERGARTEN

Turning now to the prospective reference of the kindergarten under this régime, many practical questions arise. From the side of school, what are the results of this conception of the program? What benefits accrue to the child from the tuition of the kindergarten? Shall his promotion to the primary school be determined by the standards of knowledge or the standard of behavior? From the standpoint of the third conception of the program, the standard for promotion is both behavior and knowledge. First, behavior, in that the child has a developed capacity for joyous response to the demands of each new development of experience. In the kindergarten the child has had the opportunity of co-operating and

participating in a common social life with his fellows; he has acquired habits of obedience, of cheerfulness, of courtesy, of kindness; and he has been subject to conditions that called for "the gradual substitution of an integrating end of conduct, for the mere pull and push of desire, as the cause of action."¹⁹ Second, experience—knowledge, in that the child carries into the primary school a partially organized body of experience concerning the common interests of home and nature, with a related body of songs and stories, over which he has some language and esthetic control. His ideas of number and form are concrete rather than abstract, their function having been to designate, in relation to practical ends, the educative materials of the kindergarten. Thus equipped, the child is ready to begin the conventional control of experience that characterizes the next stage of his development, which is provided for in the elementary school. It will be joy enough to read and write about the experiences with which he is familiar, and to find the activities of the kindergarten constantly enriched by the more definite lines of manual and art work. Thus, in the conventional control of the experiences of the kindergarten through reading and writing—as in the kindergarten, the child gained practical control over the experiences that were fundamental to pre-kindergarten days—one may discern the working of the productive principle of organic unity that yields progressive development. "Out of the previously familiar there emerges the quantitatively and qualitatively new experience." Thus the kindergarten fulfils its mediatory office in the scheme of purposeful education, and the separation between home and school is effectually and happily bridged.

In the meaning of the kindergarten lies its aims. Its purposes are defined in terms of humanity, and are distinctly social. It is a society in which each member is under an evolutionary process that defines the characteristic of a "socialized individual." The dominant physical activities and the mental initiations of the individual furnish the energies that make for social control; while the corporate life of the kindergarten—including its membership and all other agencies—furnishes the medium or culture ground for the development of the human, social capacities of the individual. The kindergarten seeks to preserve and make increasingly definite the

¹⁹ *Moral Education*, by Edward Howard Griggs, p. 40.

social aspects of pre-kindergarten experience. The emphasis placed upon language and constructive and graphic expression is for social, rather than intellectual, control of experience. Intellectual control is incidental, not accidental to the social and ethical purposes. Not only are the relationships to humanity dominated by the social ideal, but human relationships to nature are presented as essentially social and ethical. It is, first, a world of beauty and appreciation, and, second, a world of act and description; neither of which can be separated from the dominant social point of view.

The impulses and "experience fulfilling capacities" are the child's own, manifested in his eager, persistent activities to control self and his environment. The kindergarten exists to recognize and encourage "the impulse to self-culture and self-instruction through self-shaping, self-observation, and self-testing." It exists to mediate to the child the stories of spiritual interests and values incarnate in human experience, by which the individual may validate and fulfil the potentialities of his being. The kindergarten is under the propulsion of the principle of unity which affirms that life is all of one piece. It is regarded as one factor in the system of purposeful education, and exists for the purpose of making the implicit unity of experience increasingly explicit and formative in the life of each member of the kindergarten, not by a process of engrafting or inoculating, but by processes of development and growth. Development is not considered as static reconstruction or reproduction, but, rather, as dynamic reconstruction and reproduction in harmony with each advancing stage of society. Growth is the factor that reveals the "essential uniqueness" of each individual, and prevents his submergence into the corporate life.

Froebel recognized the dual function of purposeful education when he wrote:

The purpose of teaching and instruction is to bring ever more *out* of man rather than to put more and more *into* him; for that which can get *into* man we already know and possess as the property of mankind, and every one, simply because he is a human being, will unfold and develop it out of himself in accordance with the laws of mankind. On the other hand, what yet is to come *out* of mankind, what human nature is yet to develop, that we do not yet know, that is not yet the property of mankind; and, still, human nature, like the spirit of God, is ever unfolding its inner essence.²⁰

²⁰ *Education of Man*, p. 279.

Humanization of the child as a factor in the humanization of mankind cannot take place without increasing recognition of man's dependence upon the past with its achievements, which gives validity to faith; without the realization of a present replete with opportunities for loving service; without the allurements of a future that is radiant with hope.

Such are the ideas and ideals of the third, and latest, conception of the kindergarten program. Those who are working consciously under its guidance believe it to be in accord with the best that modern philosophy and psychology have to offer to the teacher. They also believe that it is in accord with the principles of the Froebelian philosophy.

Such, then, are the three conceptions of the kindergarten program. They cannot be considered as isolated entities, but, rather, as factors in one movement that makes for the establishment of the kindergarten as a universally necessary department of purposeful education. No one claims to fully understand the meaning or significance of childhood; and when, in the progress of evolution, we pass to a higher conception of the program, led by clearer insights into the nature and needs of the child, and by deeper philosophic and psychological insights, we may still follow Froebel, since to be truly Froebelian is to follow the spirit of his life-work, rather than the letter of his imperfect system.

VI

THE HISTORY OF KINDERGARTEN INFLUENCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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THE KINDERGARTEN'S CONTRIBUTION TO EDUCATION—IN GENERAL

The kindergarten has been one of the vital influences in American education. Its influence has been exerted along many different lines and upon many different groups of people. It forms a happy memory in the lives of the three million or more children who have participated in its procedure since the first kindergarten was opened in America. It has interpreted life from a higher standpoint to the twenty-five thousand or more young women who have taken courses in kindergarten training. It has aided the thousands of mothers who have made a study of its principles in meeting the daily problems of the home. It has enabled the Sunday-school teachers of the land to organize the religious instruction of little children upon a more fundamental basis. It has given teachers of every grade a new insight into the educational process, and has taught them to direct the development of their pupils with more wisdom than before. That the attitude of the world toward childhood has been revolutionized during the present generation; that motherhood has taken on a new and higher significance; and that primary education has been transformed in recent years largely as a result of kindergarten influence are facts so thoroughly recognized as to need but a passing mention. In enriching the lives of the children who have participated in kindergarten procedure, in interpreting the significance of motherhood anew to the women of the land, and in setting a new and different standard for the teacher, the kindergarten has rendered an invaluable service. As the value of its influence is recognized, the extension of the kindergarten has become one of the features of educational progress.

WHAT THE KINDERGARTEN HAS DONE FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Great as the value of the kindergarten may be to the children who participate in its exercises, its greatest service to education can not be rendered by the mere addition of kindergartens to the graded school system. If the principles upon which kindergarten practice is based are valid, they must be valid not alone for the stage of development which the kindergarten covers, but also for the other stages as well. The powers awakened during the kindergarten years need progressive and continuous exercise to reach the development of which they are capable, and unless the work that follows is based upon the same general principles the development is arrested. The fruit of the kindergarten tree needs a longer time to ripen than that afforded by the kindergarten years alone. The transformation that the work of the primary grades has undergone in recent years bears testimony to the recognition of these facts. The progress of the kindergarten movement is measured in part by the increasing number of kindergartens. It is measured no less by the increasing application of its principles to grade work. The multiplication of kindergartens is relatively a simple matter. The reorganization of the elementary school has been a task of far greater complexity. The kindergarten embodied a new ideal of education; it implied a different attitude toward childhood; it utilized for the child's development means other than the traditional ones; it employed different methods of procedure. The application of kindergarten principles to primary-school practice meant nothing less therefore than the reorganization of the school—the reconstruction of its ideals, the enrichment of its curriculum, the adoption of new and different methods. Since the kindergarten embodied the principles of the new educational philosophy, it alone would in great measure have effected the transformation of the school. But at the time when its influence began to be felt other forces were at work in American life—forces which created other movements destined to play a part in the transformation of American education. These movements differed in origin, aim, and scope, but all reinforced the influence exerted by the kindergarten and hastened the transformation which it would have effected. The modern primary school is the complex product of these many influences.

OTHER MOVEMENTS THAT HAVE REINFORCED THE KINDERGARTEN

While the present procedure of the primary schools bears the stamp of the kindergarten too unmistakably to leave one in doubt as to the source from which the transforming influence has come, other influences have played their part and have left their impress. Of this the art and manual-training movement, which next to the kindergarten has been the strongest influence in the transformation of the school, is an illustration. The child-study movement and the Herbartian movement of a later date are other examples of movements that have influenced the aims and methods of elementary education and left their mark upon school work. Any discussion of kindergarten influence that does not recognize these other movements and their reciprocal influence upon the kindergarten and upon each other must therefore be inadequate. To comprehend the primary school of the present it is necessary to glance briefly at its past, and at the movements that have played a part in its transformation.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL WHEN THE KINDERGARTEN CAME

The primary school, as that term is now understood, has been in existence but little more than forty years. The system of grading that created it did not come into general use until after the Civil War. The traditional curriculum of the "Three R's" with which it began was gradually modified by the addition of new subjects, and as early as the seventies it showed signs of progress. Object-lessons had become general as a result of Pestalozzian influence, emanating from the Oswego Normal School. In 1870 drawing had been introduced into the schools of Boston. This was the indirect result of the London and Paris Expositions in 1851 and 1867, which had shown the value of art instruction as an educational factor. Although these additions had been made in the more progressive communities, formal instruction was the rule and the repression of childish activity the established form of procedure. The word method of teaching reading had, it is true, supplanted the time-honored drill in the ABC's, but with few exceptions the methods of instruction had not yet been touched by the new spirit. The musical instruction for which such books as Loomis' *First Steps* furnished the basis was formal in the extreme and the rote song

was unrecognized. The instruction in drawing was based upon geometrical principles, and had no foundation in children's native interests. Form study did not become the basis for art instruction until 1880 and not until much later did color work become a recognized feature. The free expression of the children's ideas by means of clay-modeling, paper-cutting, or painting was unknown in school work. The need of physical activity in the form of play and games, and the value of contact with nature, were also unrecognized. The teachers having the least training and experience were placed in charge of the youngest children and paid the lowest salaries. Such was the primary school in the early seventies, when the kindergarten came.

DIFFERENT INFLUENCES THAT HAVE MODIFIED ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

As has been stated, the changes that have taken place in elementary education during the past thirty or more years have been the result of many different influences. These influences may be grouped into two periods; the first beginning at about the time of the Philadelphia Exposition and continuing until about the time of the Exposition at Chicago; and the second beginning with that event and continuing until the present time. The movements exerting the greatest influence during the first of these periods were the kindergarten movement, the art and manual-training movement, and the nature-study movement. These movements continued their influence during the second period, but they were reinforced by the new psychology, child-study, and Herbartianism. The Philadelphia Exposition was a great stimulus to art education, and in a lesser degree to the kindergarten also. "Throughout all the long hundred years in which they had been building a nation, Americans had shown themselves children of utility, not of beauty," says Woodrow Wilson. "Everything they used showed only the plain unstudied lines of practical serviceability. The things to be seen at Philadelphia, gathered from all the world, awakened them to a new sense of form and beauty. Men knew afterwards that that had been the dawn of an artistic renaissance in America, which was to put her architects and artists alongside the modern masters of beauty and redeem the life of her people from its ugly severity." As a result, "an immediate wave of art enthusiasm spread over the country,"

and art instruction became a part of the school curriculum in every progressive community. The kindergarten movement also felt the stimulus of the exposition. In 1870 there were but ten kindergartens in the United States. In 1880 the number had increased to four hundred. In spite of the fact that, with the exception of those in St. Louis, these kindergartens were all private or charitable, they exerted an influence upon the school system of many a city, even upon those that did not adopt them as a part of the public school system later.

The nature-study movement had a different origin. The introduction of science into the colleges and universities had shown the necessity for cultivating the children's powers of observation during the early years; hence courses in nature study for the grades were advocated and attempted. The new interest in literature called also for the beginning of literary instruction in the elementary school, and hence the story began to receive recognition as an educational instrument. The influences that combined to reconstruct elementary education thus came from three different sources: from the industrial world, which demanded art instruction as a preparation for industrial life; from the colleges, which insisted that the proper intellectual habits should be formed and formed early; and from the educational reformers, who proclaimed the doctrines of Pestalozzi and Froebel as a means of awakening the people to a realization of education as something more than instruction in the traditional school arts.

THE DECADE OF TRANSITION—1880-1890

Since it took time for the new influences to make themselves felt, the breaking-up of the old régime did not become general until the decade between 1880 and 1890. That decade may therefore be called the decade of experiment and transition. To the uninitiated it was a decade of confusion. The addition of new subjects meant either the displacing of established ones or the overcrowding of the program—at least a disturbing of the established order. The new subjects called also for the use of new and unfamiliar methods—another element of uncertainty. Since teachers and even superintendents did not always understand the purposes of the new subjects, their relation to the traditional ones, and the methods to be used in presenting them, it is not strange that the results should

have been unsatisfactory many times, and that discontent should have been rife, both in the teaching ranks and in the community. In course of time an adjustment to the new conditions was effected. The ideals that called for new subjects and new methods were more clearly apprehended, and a new unity was worked out, both in curriculum and methods. The curriculum of the present has an organic unity of its own, based upon the experiences, the activities, and the interests of children in the different stages of development, but the school in which such a curriculum obtains is separated from the school of the eighties by an immeasurable distance. The progress made since that time is due to the kindergarten and to the movements that characterized the decade between 1890 and 1900—the new psychology, child-study, and Herbartianism. The effect of these will be touched upon later. There have been three stages, therefore, in the evolution of the modern primary school; the first, in which the old ideals prevailed; the second, in which a transition from the old ideals and methods to the new was in progress; and the third, in which the new determine both curriculum and method. But since progress has not been equally uniform in all sections of the country, schools may be found representing each of these stages. Some still embody the old ideals and have not, therefore, progressed beyond the first stage; others, the great majority in fact, have accepted the new ideals in theory, but are still struggling with the problems of their application; still others relatively few in number but constantly increasing, have satisfactorily worked out the new ideals in practice.

Toward the end of the decade between 1880 and 1890 certain positive results had been realized from kindergarten influence. The spirit and manner of the kindergartner had become the accepted standard for the primary teacher because the attitude toward childhood for which the kindergarten stands had been accepted as the true attitude. The fundamental principle of the kindergarten-education through activity had been recognized as the principle upon which primary teaching should be based, since an acquaintance with the kindergarten had shown its validity. The external features of the kindergarten—its songs and games—had been adopted in many schools. The methods of art education had been radically reconstructed as a result of its influence, and the reconstruction of the

methods in teaching music, nature-study, and physical training was well under way.

CHARACTERISTIC ASPECTS OF KINDERGARTEN INFLUENCE ON
PRIMARY EDUCATION

The knowledge of educational conditions thus outlined is necessary as a background for the study of the kindergarten influence and progress. It is not difficult to see how the drawing and manual-training, or other movements have influenced the character and methods of the school. When the adoption of a new subject was decided upon, its adaptation to the several grades was carefully considered, the teachers were given instruction in the methods to be employed, and adequate supervision was provided to meet the problems of administration. In the case of the kindergarten it was very different. When kindergartens were added to the school system, a supervisor was engaged in the larger cities, it is true, but her duties seldom included instruction to the grade teachers in the methods of applying kindergarten principles to their particular work. In fact, so little direct effort was made to bring kindergarten influence to bear upon school work that one may well ask: What means did the kindergarten adopt to affect school procedure so vitally? The introduction of drawing, music, manual training, and physical exercises into the school curriculum lessened the apparent difference between the kindergarten and the school, but did not necessarily carry with it the spirit and method of the kindergarten, nor did it insure the attitude towards childhood for which the kindergarten stands. The primary teacher of the present has absorbed the spirit of the kindergarten by observation and training, though she may be unconscious of that fact. The approval which the kindergarten received compelled the teacher of the early day, steeped in the formalism that characterized the school work of that time, to acquaint herself with kindergarten procedure, and as far as possible to adopt its spirit and method. This was no easy task. Where kindergartens existed, teachers diligently visited them; where they did not exist, the teachers' only resource was the available literature of the subject or attendance at some of the summer schools, such as those conducted by Colonel Parker at the Cook County Normal School, or W. N. Hailmann, at La Porte, Indiana, that made a speciality of the kindergarten and its principles. While

the study of kindergarten theory did much to produce the change in attitude, the main source of inspiration was the kindergarten itself. The primary teacher who visited a kindergarten could not fail to be impressed by the kindergartner's attitude toward her children—by her co-operation with them in the spirit of comradeship, and by her sympathetic insight into their interests and needs. She was impressed no less by the children's attitude toward their work, by the spontaneity of their interest, and by their delight in the use of the bright-colored material. The games were a revelation to her, since they showed that there could be freedom without disorder; the interest which the children took in the kindergarten songs made her own drill on scales and intervals seem little better than drudgery; and the attractiveness of the kindergarten room gave her helpful suggestions concerning the value of beauty as a factor in education. In short, recognizing that there was possible an order of things very different from that to which she was accustomed, she determined to profit by the lesson. If kindergarten procedure could be made so interesting, why not school procedure as well? Why, she asked, should there not be pictures upon the walls and plants in the windows in the primary room as well as in the kindergarten? Why should the kindergarten children have bright-colored material and the primary children none? Why could not the songs and many of the games used in the kindergarten be used also in the primary department? The educational leaders were beginning to ask the same questions, and to urge the utilization of childish activity in the primary grades, but no arguments were half so convincing as the example of the kindergarten itself. As a result the characteristic features of the kindergarten were to a greater or less degree adopted by the school. Exercises with kindergarten material became common, and kindergarten songs and games were incorporated into the procedure of the primary school. Since the work in drawing was not based upon form-study until 1880, and color exercises formed no part of that work until many years after, the kindergarten material was a revelation to the teachers, and the gift and occupation exercises gave to many the first suggestions concerning instruction in form and color. The success of the constructive exercises carried on in the kindergarten converted many to the value and feasibility of manual training also. The expense involved in the introduction of drawing and manual training as

such had delayed that introduction in many instances; but the success of the exercises of a kindergarten character, which involved but little expense, not only familiarized the teachers with the purposes and methods of these subjects, but also prepared the public for their acceptance. Where drawing and manual training had been introduced, the efforts toward the adoption of kindergarten principles strengthened the work already undertaken. Where they had not, the attempts along kindergarten lines hastened such introduction. The children's interest in *doing* was in such marked contrast with their interest in mere learning—by the customary methods at least—that teachers and school boards could not fail to see that a new educational force had been discovered and a new vein of child-interest struck.

THE PRANG SYSTEM OF ART EDUCATION

It was along such practical lines as these that the influence of the kindergarten upon the primary school was first felt. It is a question whether the so-called application of kindergarten principles to the work of the grades meant much more to the average teacher during the decade between 1880 and 1890 than the adoption by the school of the external features of kindergarten procedure. But the mere adoption of these features led to a deeper study of Froebelian doctrines, and this in turn to an insight that resulted in better things. The fact that the kindergarten could obtain results in the line of art expression that could not be obtained by any other method had led the advocates of art instruction as early as 1880 to reconstruct the system of art education on a basis Froebelian to the core. The result was the Prang System of Art Education. The Prang System has been one of the great agencies of educational reform, and the most effective ally of the kindergarten in placing the work of the school upon an active instead of a receptive basis. Wherever the Prang system is used the principles of Froebel are disseminated. The success of the system is due in no small degree to its espousal of kindergarten principles. It has become one of the great agencies for the spread of the kindergarten gospel.

THE KINDERGARTEN SONGBOOK

But the art instruction was not the only line of work that was reorganized in whole or in part as a result of a growing insight

into kindergarten principles. The kindergarten songbook rendered an important service in carrying kindergarten influence into the school, as has been stated. Since it was the agency by means of which kindergarten games found their way into the primary school-room, the songbook did as much as the kindergarten material to introduce the principle of activity into primary education. But acquainting primary teachers with kindergarten games was but a part of the service the songbook rendered. It showed a new conception of the function of music in a child's development, and of the methods by which that development should be secured. The kindergartner maintained that this development depended upon the cultivation of musical feeling, and that this made the hearing of good music adapted to the child's comprehension, indispensable. This practically created the child's song and brought the rote song into use as an educational instrument. She maintained further that the appreciation of rhythmic exercises and participation in them is essential, and that such exercises should therefore have a place in the kindergarten program. She further insisted that opportunity for the interpretation of music should also be given, and that there should eventually be creative expression in music, as there is such expression in other lines. But if these ideas were to obtain in the music-teaching of the grades, a new system of ideals and methods was needed. The principles in question were gradually recognized, and a reorganization of the music-teaching in the grades was undertaken. Such a reconstruction was hardly more than conceived of, however, during the decade in question; in fact, it has been but partially effected, even yet. Because the kindergarten songbook suggested such a reconstruction, and introduced games and dramatizations into the grades, it has been one of the main agencies for the spread of kindergarten influence. Wherever it has gone it has carried the kindergarten spirit—the sympathetic interpretation of childhood, the love of nature, and respect for human activity, whatever its form.

THE KINDERGARTEN GAMES IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The use of the kindergarten game in the primary school led to the reorganization of another line of work also. The physical needs of school children have received but scant consideration at the hands of school authorities, but about the middle of the decade

under consideration gymnastic exercises were introduced into the schools of all the larger cities. But the spirit with which the children entered into the games, in marked contrast with the spirit manifested in the formal exercises, showed plainly that this branch of school work had not yet been placed upon a proper foundation. That there was needed a course of physical training in which games appropriate to the different grades should have a place was readily seen. Such a course was not worked out during the decade in question. Like the needed reorganization in musical lines, it is hardly worked out even yet, but much thought has been given to it in recent years.

THE KINDERGARTEN AND NATURE-STUDY

In the line of nature-study, too, the kindergarten suggested new ideals and methods. That such study was successful when the emphasis was placed where the kindergartner placed it—upon the care and observation of living plants and animals, upon gardening, and excursions to see Nature at work in her own time and way—all this the kindergarten had abundantly demonstrated. In consequence the organization of nature-study courses for the grades along the above mentioned lines was undertaken. Little was accomplished until after the decade under consideration had passed, but the new insight gained was not lost.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DECADE, 1890-1900

As has been stated, the decade between 1880 and 1890 was a significant one in the history of elementary education, because it saw the inauguration of many new features in school work. The decade between 1890 and 1900 was even more significant, since it saw the rise of other movements destined to give a more fundamental insight into the ends and means of education, those of the kindergarten included. The literature of the kindergarten had familiarized the public with the conception of education as a process of continuous development—a process in which the child's creative activity must play an important part. This doctrine had been impressed upon the teachers of the country with rare force by Colonel Francis W. Parker, who embodied in himself the attitude toward childhood which the new education represents, and who probably did more than any other single individual in the United

States to bring about the acceptance of the new educational doctrines in their application to the grades. At the beginning of the decade in question the doctrine of education as a process of continuous development received a signal reinforcement from the teaching of the new psychology that was beginning to make itself felt—the psychology of Dewey, James, Hall, and others. This was the product of the new spirit in the colleges, the spirit of the inductive sciences. The biological sciences had laid the foundation for the knowledge the new psychology proclaimed namely, that the development of the child falls into well-marked stages, and that education to be valid must be based upon the interests and activities of these different stages. This was what the exponents of the kindergarten had been proclaiming, to be sure, but many who had been unwilling to accept the Froebelian doctrine, based upon insight rather than upon scientific method, accepted these same doctrines without question when their correctness was thus established. The Froebelian principle of creative activity also received a confirmation no less marked. A fuller knowledge of the nervous system gave a new insight into the mental processes, and had therefore thrown added light upon the nature of true educational procedure. The recognition of the part that the motor activities play in development gave a new significance to physical exercise, to games and plays, to manual training and art work, and to nature-study in the form of gardening and excursions. The child's mental image became a recognized means of education, and the free expression of his images a necessary part of the educational process, not alone in art work but also in music, language, and other forms of school effort.

GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY AND THE CHILD-STUDY MOVEMENT

The child-study movement, which was the natural outgrowth of the new psychology, attempted a task which would have been of inestimable value had it been satisfactorily completed—the gathering of a body of facts concerning the nature and growth of children at different stages upon which a true science of education might ultimately be built. Much of value was accomplished, although the most important part of the work—the sifting and organizing of the collected data—has never been satisfactorily completed. The movement gave an added stimulus to the study of psychology as a basis for education, however, aided in the reor-

ganization of many phases of educational procedure, destroyed the tendency toward the blind acceptance of educational doctrines whatever their source, and led to an appreciation of the new educational movements that would have been impossible before. To many it gave their first insight into the nature and purpose of the kindergarten; to others it reinterpreted the Froebelian doctrines and gave them a broader significance.

The psychological movement, of which the child-study movement was a part, had a most important bearing upon the progress of the kindergarten as such and upon the application of its principles to grade work. But before this can be discussed another movement that had an important bearing upon American education must be considered. This is the Herbartian movement. The new psychology, child-study, and Herbartianism were the three influences that shaped the educational thought of the decade. The general character of that thought has determined in a large measure the form that kindergarten procedure as such has taken, as well as the form that the application of kindergarten principles to grade work has assumed.

THE HERBARTIAN PEDAGOGY

The character of German pedagogy during recent years has been determined largely by the influence of Herbart, and in view of Germany's leadership in education it is not strange that her pedagogy should have influenced education in the United States. The psychology of Herbart has found little or no acceptance among American educators, but the practical value of certain phases of Herbartian doctrines aroused considerable interest. For a number of years there was hardly an educational meeting of importance in which a discussion of those doctrines was not given an important place. In the thorough weighing which Herbartian doctrines have thus received, many have been found wanting in value for American education, but some have been given deserved recognition. Herbart's psychology has not stood the test of modern thought, but his doctrine of apperception is conceded to be one of the most important contributions to recent pedagogical science. The Culture Epoch Theory associated with his name has been rejected as the foundation for the American school curriculum, but the thought that the curriculum of the elementary school should have a character-building content has given history, literature, and nature-study a permanent

place in grade work and made a return to the curriculum of the "three R's" forever impossible. A school program based upon the Herbartian principle of correlation may have been found impracticable, but the attempts in that direction did much to make the curriculum an organic whole instead of a mere collection of unrelated subjects. The doctrine of interest may have needed the modification it received at the hands of American psychologists, but it has done much to give a more fundamental character to education. The movement in general reinforced the theory of stages in a child's development, but it considered them from another point of view—that of subject-matter appropriate to each. The doctrine of creative self-activity this movement did not recognize, and in this respect it was out of harmony with the educational theory in process of formation as a result of other tendencies. By its discussion of the essential steps in the teaching process Herbartianism rendered a most valuable service to pedagogical science and placed classroom instruction upon a new and higher level. Altogether the Herbartian movement must be considered one of the most stimulating influences in American education.

GROWTH AND DIVISION: TWO SCHOOLS OF KINDERGARTNERS

The kindergarten, which was becoming a part of the school system while these movements were in progress, could not fail to be influenced by them, both directly and indirectly. Although the attention paid to the newer movements seemed to relegate interest in the kindergarten to the background, in reality it was making most remarkable progress. In 1890 it had secured a legal foothold in less than half a dozen states; at present, kindergartens can be established at public expense in half the states of the Union. In 1890 five or six of the larger cities and twenty-five or thirty of the smaller ones had adopted the kindergarten into the school system; in 1902 public-school kindergartens were reported in four hundred and forty. In 1890 not more than six of the state normal schools of the country had established kindergarten training departments; at present such departments have been organized in more than fifty. This growing incorporation of the kindergarten into the school system had consequences that were far reaching. Had it remained outside of the school system, it might have remained uninfluenced by the movements that were shaping general educa-

tion; its introduction into the school system made its modification inevitable. Before the advent of the new psychology kindergarten procedure had been considered the ideal which school practice should emulate. But while the psychologist had pronounced favorably upon the kindergarten as a whole, and thus established it more firmly than ever in the confidence of the people, he by no means approved of the kindergarten doctrine in its entirety, nor of all the phases of kindergarten practice. Since he recognized no authority except that furnished by his own or kindred sciences, he assumed an attitude more or less critical, considered that much of the work with the gifts and occupations required an exactness detrimental to young children, and declared a reconstruction of its theory and practice necessary. When the kindergarten became a part of the public-school system, these criticisms were brought to bear upon its practice as they would not have been had it remained a separate institution. The school superintendents of the country, versed in psychology and educational theory in general, acquainted the kindergartners with the newer views and frequently insisted upon such a modification of established procedure as the newer views demanded. When such modifications first began to appear, the kindergartners who had not themselves felt the pulse of the general educational movements considered such deviations from established procedure as nothing more than a "failure to understand Froebel." When the modifications became more general, those advocating them were regarded as misguided individuals who had forsaken the true gods and affected an unholy alliance with the worshipers at other shrines. But as the differences became more apparent the kindergartners of the country began to ally themselves either with those who approved the changes in progress on the one hand, or with those who were opposed to them on the other. The ultimate result was the division of the kindergartners of the country into conservatives and liberals, the former clinging to the established interpretation of Froebelian doctrine and the mode of kindergarten procedure that Froebel is supposed to have followed, and the latter accepting the new interpretation and modifying the procedure on the basis of the criticisms made. Fearing that the lack of agreement in the kindergarten ranks might work injury to the kindergarten cause as a whole, the International Kindergarten Union in 1903 appointed a committee, known as the Committee of Nineteen,

to inquire into, and if possible reconcile, the differences that had grown up. The committee was composed of leading representatives of both the conservatives and liberals, as well as of those known to occupy middle ground. Several most profitable meetings have been held, but the work for which the committee was organized has not yet been completed. Those who hoped for a reconciliation of the opposing schools of kindergarten interpretation as a result of the committee's deliberations, however, will doubtless be disappointed, since the conservatives have been unwilling thus far to accept the conclusions of modern psychology upon which the liberal views are based, and the liberals are equally unwilling to return to views which they feel that they have outgrown. The report of the committee's work cannot fail to be a most valuable contribution to kindergarten literature.

Although many kindergartners have not yet accepted the views for which the liberal kindergartners stand, the logic of events points to their ultimate acceptance if the kindergarten is to become an organic part of the American school system. The progressive kindergartner considers that psychology and child-study are but elaborating the principles which Froebel himself recognized as clearly as the knowledge of his time would permit, and that the added insight of the present but furnishes the means of perfecting the institution which he did not live to complete. She therefore welcomes the light which modern science has thrown upon the development of the child's body, even though it necessitates the reorganization of the games which Froebel considered adequate for its development. She recognizes the value of the idea upon which the system of gifts and occupations is based—that of carefully organized impressions to be followed by adequate expression; but psychology has taught her that much of the customary work with both gifts and occupations requires an exactness injurious to undeveloped nerves and muscles. Her faith in creative activity as the fundamental article in the kindergarten creed has not been shaken, but she considers work creative only when it is the expression of the child's own image. She accepts the Froebelian doctrine of the value of beauty in awakening the child's higher nature, but her study of art has shown her that the customary work with the gifts and occupations would not lead him to a recognition of true beauty. She yields to no one in her belief that children may be prepared

for the appreciation of spiritual truths early, but she can accept the kindergarten doctrine of the symbol as a means of doing so in its modern interpretation only. In these and other respects the liberal, or progressive, kindergartner considers that there is opportunity for great improvement, both in the theory of the kindergarten and in its practice. In general she is willing to submit both to the test of modern educational insight knowing that what is of true value will not be overthrown.

INFLUENCE AND PLACE OF THE MODIFIED KINDERGARTEN

But what effect has the modification of kindergarten thought and practice had upon the progress of the kindergarten as such, and upon the application of its principles to grade work? A most gratifying one in every way. The kindergarten had been accepted by the American people before it received the sanction and the criticism of the psychologists, but it was a thing apart from the school, in aim, material, and method. Psychology rediscovered the principles upon which kindergarten procedure is based and gave them a universal significance. It therefore broke down the wall of separation between the kindergarten and the school, and laid the foundation for their ultimate unification. So thoroughly are the principles of psychology in accord with the fundamental principles of the kindergarten that, had there been no kindergarten to begin the transformation of the school before the advent of the new psychology, a transformation akin to that which was in progress would have been effected sooner or later by that movement alone; and had Froebel failed to devise the kindergarten as the first stage in a system of educational procedure, his American successors—the exponents of the new psychology—would have been obliged to do so. It is not strange therefore that the kindergarten itself should have made more rapid progress during the past few years than ever before and that its principles should receive increasing recognition. The battle for its existence in American education was fought and won at an earlier stage; the greater battle for the application of its principles to general educational procedure was won with the new interpretation of its doctrines, and the inauguration of the new modes of procedure. Dr. Richard G. Boone says: "Should the kindergarten be everywhere abandoned as a part of the school machinery, it would still remain in spirit as a determining factor in every other

part of the system, and in no less than a decade the kindergarten itself would have reclaimed its recognition and place—so vital is it in current educational thought.”

PRESENT PROBLEMS AND PRESENT STATUS

The acceptance of an educational theory is an easy matter. The application of that theory to existing conditions is a more difficult one. The adoption of the kindergarten as a part of the American school system has given rise to many problems that have not yet been satisfactorily solved. The mere adjustment of the kindergarten as such to the school as such has raised many difficulties in administrative work, but these need not be discussed here. The reorganization of practice in the kindergarten itself presents other problems, those which the superintendent and the kindergartners must work out together. The application of kindergarten principles to primary-school practice presents still other and greater difficulties. It calls for the co-operation of all the educational forces, and success can be hoped for only when superintendent, kindergartners, primary teachers, and teachers of special subjects work with intelligent insight toward a common end. But what are the fundamental principles whose application is to be effected? These have been differently stated; H. Courthope Bowen considers “that the doctrine of creativeness—the practical application of the principle of self activity—together with the doctrine of continuity and connectedness, forms the true heart of Froebel’s system.” It is the doctrines of continuity and connectedness combined which have reconstructed the primary curriculum during recent years, on the basis of the child’s fundamental interests and activities at successive stages, and the doctrine of creative self-expression that has reorganized existing methods in art, music, manual training, language-teaching, and kindred forms of school work. The result is the primary school of the present, the school in which, according to Dr. Monroe, “the emphasis is placed upon the activities of the child rather than upon the technique of the process of instruction, and where development of character and personality is sought rather than the mere impartation of information and the training of intellectual ability.” In such a school, “the materials of instruction, if they are really and vitally to produce the development of the child’s mind and nature, must be selected from life as it now is, and as it

affects the child and comes within his comprehension," says Dr. Monroe further. And if the school in question be thoroughly Froebelian, the method as well as the material of instruction must be the result of the child's thought and experience, it must be the method of creative self-expression. There is many a primary school today in which these principles are intelligently applied, and which is therefore as truly Froebelian as the best kindergarten. There is many a primary teacher, too, who is as genuinely a child-gardener as the kindergartner herself, and who is doing as much as the kindergartner to further the cause of kindergarten progress.

CONCLUSION

The kindergarten has thus exerted a most vital influence upon American education; but the transformation of the school that it is capable of effecting has hardly more than begun. The list of cities in which the kindergarten has been adopted is a creditable one, but it is small compared with the list of those in which such adoption has not yet been effected. The schools in which the doctrines of Froebel are applied are doubtless increasing, but those that give no evidence of having been influenced by those doctrines are still too numerous. The educational movements of the present are all in accord with, or the result of Froebelian doctrines. As the new movements are more fully comprehended, the logic of events points to a great extension of kindergarten influence in the near future. The furthering of that influence should be the aim of all who have the highest interests of American education at heart.

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MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS HELD IN CHICAGO,
FEBRUARY 25 AND 27, 1907

Monday evening, February 25.—"The Certification of Teachers" was the topic for discussion. Dr. Cubberley's carefully prepared monograph on this subject had been studied by many of the members present. This was particularly true of those who had indicated in advance their intention to discuss some phase of the subject. The discussions were therefore valuable. The following members took leading parts in the discussion:

Dr. Reuben Post Halleck made a short introductory talk, in which he called attention to the important work the National Society is doing, and to the importance and timeliness of the topic under discussion. He emphatically announced himself as opposed to any educational policy that discourages or denies "free trade in brains," as does the prevailing system of certification of teachers.

Dr. Henry Suzzallo opened the discussion of the *Yearbook* in place of Professor Cubberley, who was detained because of sickness. He set forth in a direct and clear way the main points in the *Yearbook*, thus opening the subject in an excellent way for further discussion.

The discussion that followed Dr. Suzzallo's introduction dealt with various prominent phases of the subject. Some parts of it would be valuable matter for the *Yearbook*, and hereafter an attempt will be made to have stenographic reports, or to have the speakers write out their discussions soon after the meetings. The following members took prominent parts: Dr. Charles DeGarmo, Cornell University; Superintendent J. M. H. Frederick, Lakewood, Ohio; Professor John F. Brown, University of Wyoming; Professor Edwin G. Dexter, University of Illinois; Professor G. W. A. Luckey, University of Nebraska; Professor Edward F. Buchner, University of Alabama; Superintendent J. Stanley Brown, Township High School, Joliet, Ill.; Superintendent C. P. Cary, of Wisconsin (Mr. Cary was the only speaker that took definite issue with the idea of state centralization as the best means of improving the prevailing system of certificating teachers); H. A. Hollister, University of Illinois; Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.; Super-

intendent H. M. Slauson, Ann Arbor, Mich.; and B. C. Moore, superintendent of McLain County, Ill.

Motion was made to adopt a recommendation of the Executive Committee that a committee of three be appointed to promote more effective legislation and administration of certification and professional improvement of teachers in the several states. Amendment to make the number on the committee four was carried, and the motion passed unanimously.

Professor Dexter moved that a committee of one be appointed to report an appropriate expression of the National Society in remembrance of the late Dr. Wilbur S. Jackman. Carried. Dr. C. A. McMurry was later appointed as this committee, to report at the Wednesday evening meeting.

Wednesday afternoon, 4:30 o'clock.—This was the annual business meeting, and no attempt was made to take up the discussion of "The Vocational Studies for College Entrance," which was the topic announced for this meeting. Postponement of this discussion was necessary because of the inability of many members who were interested to attend. Before adjourning there was some continued discussion of the certification of teachers.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

For President—Stratton D. Brooks.

For Secretary-Treasurer—Manfred J. Holmes.

For place made vacant on Executive Committee by making Superintendent Brooks President—Reuben Post Halleck (one year).

For the two new members of Executive Committee—J. Stanley Brown and Henry Suzzallo.

The following recommendation of the Executive Committee was adopted; namely, that, in addition to necessary expenses, the Secretary of the Society be allowed the sum of \$100, to be paid out of such funds as shall remain in the treasury after all other regular expenses are met.

The following persons were elected to active membership at the Chicago meetings:

George A. Axline, president State Normal School, Albion, Idaho.

Professor Frederick G. Bonser, State Normal School, Macomb.

Mrs. Mary D. Bradford, Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.

George A. Brown, editor *School and Home Education*, Bloomington, Ill.

Superintendent Arthur D. Call, Hartford, Conn.

Professor Edward C. Elliott, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

Superintendent L. D. Harvey, The Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.

Superintendent Warren E. Hicks, Cleveland, Ohio.

Superintendent James F. Keating, Pueblo, Colo.

Superintendent Charles H. Keyes, 82 Wethersfield Ave., Hartford, Conn.

Miss Anna E. Logan, Principal Ohio State Normal, Oxford, Ohio.

George H. Martin, Secretary Massachusetts Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

Superintendent J. V. McMillan, Marietta, Ohio.

Professor A. S. Olin, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

Frank H. Palmer, editor *Education*, 50 Broomfield St., Boston, Mass.

Professor Walter D. Scott, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

Professor George D. Strayer, Teachers College, New York, N. Y.

Professor Harry K. Wolfe, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

Wednesday evening, 8:00 o'clock.—The Wednesday evening session proved an excellent one. "Vocational Studies for College Entrance" was the topic for discussion. Here again some of the contributions to the discussion would be valuable material for the *Yearbook*. Theodore de Laguna, George D. Strayer, W. S. Sutton, Dean James E. Russell, David S. Snedden, M. V. O'Shea, Jesse D. Burks, E. L. Thorndike, Charles McKenny, and others took leading parts.

It was proposed at this meeting that the committee to conduct this study of the vocational studies for college entrance be continued and enlarged; and that a working basis be established for recognition of vocational studies for entrance credit. The Executive Committee took this under advisement.

An appropriate expression of appreciation of the work and life of Dr. Wilbur S. Jackman, and sorrow for his untimely death, was adopted.

MANFRED J. HOLMES, *Secretary*

DISCUSSION—MAKING ROOM FOR VOCATIONAL STUDIES

THEODORE DE LAGUNA
University of Michigan

Certain comments which Mr. Herrick makes upon my paper on "Vocational Studies" in the *Sixth Yearbook* of this society show that I did not succeed in making my position sufficiently clear; and I take this opportunity of adding the apparently necessary explanation.

I. In the first place, it is not to be understood that the entrance requirements of the University of Michigan are less in amount than is usual among the better colleges of the country. Had that been the case, I should not have taken them as an example. The fifteen units which are required are based upon the usual estimate of four or five recitation periods per week for a school year, for each unit. If five periods per week are given to every study throughout the school course, it is obvious that, with four recitations daily, sixteen units can be completed in the four years—one more than is required. If, on the other hand, the lesser allowance of four periods per week for each study is made, twenty units can be completed in the same period—five more than is required. That is to say, five studies, to each of which is allotted four recitations per week, can be carried on with four recitations daily, if each study is omitted on a different day of the week. Furthermore, if, as seems more reasonable, half the units were put upon the five-hour basis, and half upon the four-hour basis, eighteen units can be completed in the four years—three more than is required.

II. It was with these facts in mind that I wrote: "The well-organized high school can easily, if its administrators so desire, devote four or five periods a week to such [vocational] subjects throughout the entire course, and still *contrive to meet* the college entrance requirements." The words which I now italicize were evidently overlooked, and the statement was taken to be a general recommendation. I did not so intend it. It was meant to indicate the *practical maximum within which a wise middle course might be found*; for I take it for granted that not more than four recitations a day (or their equivalent) should be required of any high-school student. Now, just how much in the way of vocational study can be thus inserted without overcrowding the curriculum would, I suppose, depend upon the particular subjects in question. In the case of various branches of manual training, and especially in the case of agriculture and the allied pursuits, I should unhesi-

tatingly recommend the maximum. The commercial studies, however, being sedentary in character, could not easily be given so large a place. I dare say that not more than two or three units of such work could be thus provided for without serious danger.

If, then, a greater amount of commercial work is desirable in the case of a certain class of high-school students who are intending to go to college, the question arises how it may best be given a place. As my paper indicated, I should answer this question, not by advising the substitution of commercial studies for any part of the already meager and inadequate theoretical course, but by advising the extension of the high-school period so as to include the seventh and eighth elementary grades. And in this I believe that I am in accord with the most trustworthy current opinion. The difficulty is not one in which the middle schools need help from the universities, but one in which they can best help themselves.

I should add that I see no reason why political economy should be regarded as a vocational study any more than physics or chemistry. On the contrary, it is a fundamental theoretical science; and, considering the universal demand for it in American civic life, I believe that it would be an excellent policy to encourage the beginning of its study in the high school.

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THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I

THE RELATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS TO THE TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL IMPROVE- MENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

BY
CHARLES D. LOWRY
District Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois

EDITED BY
MANFRED J. HOLMES
Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

THE SUBJECT OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE WASHINGTON
MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY ON MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, AT 7:45
P. M., AND WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1908, AT 4:30 P. M.

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PREFACE

Three years ago the subject of the *Seventh Yearbook* was proposed as an important field for the National Society to investigate. Since that time several of the ablest and most progressive superintendents in the United States have made positive advance in the solution of the problems involved in the relation of superintendents and principals to the training and improvement of their teachers.

That the study presented in this *Yearbook* should have been made by one who has been connected with the movement at perhaps its most active storm center is fortunate for manifest reasons. Charles D. Lowry has been a district superintendent of schools in Chicago for about seven years, and therefore has the insight necessary to interpret the reports sent in from all parts of the United States and select and classify and estimate the value of data contained in such reports.

It is hoped that this *Yearbook* will be of service to superintendents, principals, and boards of education who are earnestly working to solve the important and difficult problem involved.

One important part of the *Seventh Yearbook* is intentionally postponed to be published later under separate cover. This part omitted is the supplementary study of the kindergarten in its relation to elementary education. This supplement is to be devoted entirely to the practical relation, the necessary unity and continuity of kindergarten and primary education. Subscribers to the *Yearbook* will get this supplement as a part of the present issue without extra charge.

M. J. HOLMES

INTRODUCTION

Recently there was sent out by the secretary of this Society to many of its members and others, a circular¹ asking each (1) to give his views as to the need for carrying on systematic work for training the teaching force to a higher degree of efficiency, and (2) to make a statement of the nature of such work, if any, that is carried on in the school system with which he is connected. A number of very interesting replies were received. The following paper is practically a summary of these reports. No effort has

¹ This circular read as follows:

The next meeting of the Society for the Scientific Study of Education (February, 1908) will be devoted to the discussion of the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of teachers after they have entered the profession. To Mr. C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Chicago, has been assigned the duty of preparing the paper. This paper is to contain (1) a statement of the reasons why the work of improvement of teachers should be carried on systematically, and (2) a summary of the best methods that are in use throughout the country to attain the end desired.

Will you kindly prepare a statement covering these two points as seen from the standpoint of the work in your city? The inclosed questionnaire has been prepared simply to make your reply easier. It need not be followed if you prefer to adopt some other plan.

It will be particularly interesting to know what is being done in your city for the improvement of teachers. Wherever printed rules of the board of education will supply this information, kindly furnish a copy.

This paper will be printed in the *Yearbook* of the Society. We hope to make it a valuable handbook for superintendents and boards of education. It is therefore desirable that the information be as full and accurate as possible. We should also like the privilege of printing *verbatim* portions of any returns that may seem suited for such use.

The importance of this study and its practical value when published in book form surely warrant our asking even the busiest superintendents to co-operate by returning at the earliest possible day the data herein requested.

The time for preparing the paper is short; therefore please send reply directly to C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Board of Education Rooms, Chicago, Ill.

Yours very respectfully,

MANFRED J. HOLMES,
Secretary, and Editor of YEARBOOK

been made to state the number of replies to each point nor the number of places reporting a certain kind of work, the effort being to present, as a whole, the views of the various correspondents on the question of the need for the work and a summary of the leading lines of work that are being undertaken. In a few instances, the rules of the boards of education have been quoted or summarized.

The thanks of the writer are hereby extended to all who so kindly co-operated in this work. The author has added but little to the statements found in the various papers.

Two important lines of work for the improvement of teachers have not been touched in this study, namely, the "Preparation of Teachers," and the "Certification of Teachers." Both of these topics, however, have been treated in previous Yearbooks of the Society.

THE RELATION OF PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS TO THE TRAINING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

CHARLES D. LOWRY

District Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.

THE PROBLEM

Success in any occupation depends upon the native ability, the initial equipment, and the intensity of the desire for improvement existing in the worker. This statement applies to work in its broadest sense, including that of the artist, the professional man, and the mechanic.

The intensity of the desire for improvement is in direct proportion to the stimulus which it receives. This stimulus may come from the worker's conscientiousness and his love for excellence, or it may be the result of external influences, such as the opportunity to obtain pecuniary or other rewards. Conscientiousness and love for excellence are peculiar to no rank of society; there will be, doubtless, about as many people having these qualities in one occupation as in another. The effect of this stimulus, therefore, is about equally potent in all. The differences lie chiefly in the external stimulation.

In most occupations the encouragement for improvement is furnished by the conditions governing the practice of the occupation itself. A physician who is not well equipped, who is unsuccessful in diagnosis, who does not keep abreast of progress in the treatment of disease, cannot retain any considerable practice and is seldom trusted with difficult cases. The public knowing little of medicine, can yet apply the rule of judging a tree by its fruits; they can tell a sick child from a well one and they soon learn to judge pretty fairly as to a physician's ability to heal.

With the teaching profession, it is otherwise. The public are not so successful in discriminating a well-taught child from one poorly taught. The indications are not so pronounced. The sick child is

unhappy and makes those about him suffer; the poorly taught child is not unhappy and seldom causes his parents much anxiety on that score; the mischief is insidious; the consequences come to the surface only in later years.

In medicine the public demands that which is modern. In school work, they are apt to demand the ancient. Parents like to have their children taught in the good old-fashioned way. The desire for better work does not come from the public, but from the progressive members of the teaching profession. This, then, is the first and greatest reason why the present topic, "The Relation of the Principal and the Superintendent to the Improvement of Teachers," is of special importance. The plans for improvement must originate with them and be carried forward by them, if they are ever to come at all.

When the conditions under which the work of teaching is done are examined into, the need for carrying this work on steadily and systematically is shown more clearly. To carry a little farther the comparison between the medical profession and that of teaching: the physician cannot begin to practice until he has passed through a lengthy and somewhat severe course of training, which training has been passed upon by legally constituted authorities. This severe requirement is of recent growth. A century ago, a man might begin the practice of medicine with as much ease and as little training as is needed today in many parts of the country for young men and young women to begin teaching. The laws in force in many of the larger cities give great encouragement to teachers who have graduated from accredited normal schools having at least a two-year course, and to students who have graduated from accredited colleges having pedagogical courses; but it is still true that owing to the scarcity of teachers there are being admitted to the service in practically all school systems teachers who began their work with only a high-school education, and in many places with much less than this. Furthermore, there are today in probably all school systems many teachers who began their service before the requirements were anything like as high as they are today, and when the examinations themselves were much easier than they are now. Therefore, without relaxing their efforts to secure a high degree of preparation in teachers, the superintendent and the principal must

give more time and attention to making good teachers of those now in service.

The situation is well illustrated by the following quotations:

In Baltimore for many years prior to 1900, the indispensable minimum of scholarship for teaching in the elementary schools was provided for by the requirement of high-school graduation or its equivalent as a condition of employment. Graduation from the high school was here, as in many other cities, very ill-advisedly taken as evidence of ability to teach. A few years earlier, a still lower standard prevailed. There are teachers yet in the service whose attainments at the time of their appointment were tested only by an examination about suited to pupils in an upper grammar grade of an elementary school. These, however, are few, and they have gained increased scholarship while teaching. In either case the young teacher was placed in charge of a class with only the empirical ideas about teaching that came unconsciously from years of association in elementary and high schools with her own teachers, themselves, in many instances, not especially well qualified for their work, and consequently, presenting for imitation not the best models. A teacher thus equipped has some knowledge of the common branches, but she knows little of the learning process and, therefore, her efforts are uneconomically expended. She does not know how to present subjects in such a manner as to engage the child's interest and call forth his best efforts; consequently, disciplinary problems are the prominent ones. She begins with the younger children because these are the only ones she can keep in order. A few teachers of superior natural ability quickly gain considerable skill; others, in the course of time, achieve a moderate degree of success; and still others, equally conscientious and faithful, begin their work in a purely formal and mechanical way, and, if left undisturbed, soon become chained in a dull and lifeless routine.

The situation as regards the teaching force of Kansas City (Mo.) is similar to that of many other cities rapidly growing. The demand for teachers is constant. We employ as many experienced teachers from the outside as are attracted to us by the salary offered. Previous to 1891, eligibility to appointment to the city schools depended upon passing an examination given by the county commissioner. Few applicants ever failed to pass it. Teachers, except those holding state certificates, were examined annually or biennially, therefore, for the purpose of keeping up the standard(?). Attendance at the county institute was recognized as an equivalent. Few ever were absent. About 1891, the state legislature changed the law relating to the examination of our city teachers. Since that time a committee of two principals and a high-school teacher has constituted the examining board, the stand-

ard of whose examinations has been essentially higher than that of the county commissioner.

The school board of Kansas City does not require professional training. As conditions are now it could not make such a requirement. We have no city training school, no city normal college, no teachers' college. Of the annual output of the five normal schools in the state, we receive, obviously, a very small part. Neither is conformity to a high standard of scholarship required, unless the ability to pass the preliminary examination is so accounted. While the school board places a correct value on a college diploma, it is not required. Notwithstanding this, a considerable number of the teachers, both in the high schools and in the elementary schools, are college bred. . . . We have among us scholarly teachers who are graduates of high schools only. Their student days have never ended. We have among us representatives of both foreign and American universities. We have teachers of native ability who have had but little, if any, strictly professional preparation. We have teachers who, to a general education, have added such professional training as is given in a two-year course at a state normal school, and others who have taken a year's course. Among our teachers are several who, previous to accepting an appointment in this city, were teaching in a normal school, or a college, or acting as superintendent of a town-school system. We have representatives from several teachers' colleges. We also have teachers who were educated in various academies such as once flourished in many of the states. And we have the contingent, increasing each year, that has graduated from the city high schools, passed the teachers' examination, substituted one year in the schools, and received temporary appointment as teachers. During the period of substituting, these beginners have learned a few devices. They are almost helpless if left to themselves. They have little knowledge of children and little knowledge of the subjects to be taught. They belong to no school of thought, they know nothing of the philosophy of education, or of its history, or of its principles, or of its practice. These at a small salary are put in charge of a room. They have youth and personal charm, and what may be called flexibility of character; they are enthusiastic and eager to succeed. Their personality tides them over the period of their novitiate, and if they remain in the service, they sometimes become valuable members of it.

To quote from the report from Grand Rapids (Wis.):

After such a teacher (high-school graduate) has had a little experience she acquires considerable mechanical skill in teaching. Professional knowledge is liable to become limited to methods and devices. Theories underlying the devices and the larger problems of the nature of the child become to her a sealed book which she neither knows how to open nor does she consider it worth her while to make an attempt.

Even when the teachers who enter the service come with the preparation furnished by the best normal schools and colleges, there is still need for much careful training and instruction. The college graduate while well equipped from an academic standpoint, has only theoretical knowledge of methods of presenting material and of the training and management of children. It is a common experience that these teachers are apt to make a failure in the classroom at the beginning of their work unless they are carefully supported and directed until they have acquired, from practice, skill in meeting classroom problems. With the normal-school graduate, no matter how well the practice work done in connection with her training has been arranged, there must be something artificial about it and the conditions that confront the teacher when she is thrown entirely upon her own resources are very different from those to which she has been accustomed. On the other hand, much of the instruction which she has received on the theoretical lines has been but partly comprehended since she had no real body of experience with which to interpret it; hence, much of the greatest value will have been forgotten before the opportunity to apply has come, and its value in helping her to solve her problems of school work will be largely lost unless it is recalled to her through continued study and careful supervision, and unless the applications of these doctrines of education are pointed out to her in practice. Moreover, these young women rush from childish studies to professional discipline and without having really passed through the changes of girlhood, they undertake to shape the plastic minds of children, minds from which they have by their own rapid physical and emotional growth been removed farther in sympathy than are men and women of more mature years.

A few years ago, the complaint was frequent that the insecurity of tenure worked against the attaining of the best service in the school work. This complaint still applies, no doubt, in rural communities and smaller cities. In the larger cities, the condition is quite the reverse. After a teacher has once become established in a system by virtue of one or two years of moderately successful work, her position becomes practically permanent if she continues to do work which is barely mediocre; and the adoption, in many places, of laws, establishing a teachers' pension fund, by giving the

teachers a sort of legal claim to their positions, has also given much comfort to the mediocre teacher.

Still another, and, perhaps, the most serious reason why it is important to train teachers to their highest efficiency is this: in practically every occupation but ours when a worker becomes less and less efficient, and where, for any reason, it is desirable to retain him in the service, there are found positions of less and less importance which he can fill acceptably or with little detriment to the service. In a graded school, on the contrary, the teacher of the highest efficiency and the teacher of less efficiency have equally important problems to solve, and poor work by either is equally harmful. Each teacher is in charge of forty or fifty children for five hours a day during the years when the physical, mental, and spiritual natures of those children are most plastic. If there is any difference in this regard, it is that the poorer teachers are placed in the lower grades where their weakness is less apparent—the places of all others the worst for the poor teacher, her apparent success in these grades being due to her ability to form these immature and plastic minds upon the bad ideals which she herself represents.

THE SOLUTION

The lines of work reported may be roughly divided into five classes: (1) supervision; (2) work undertaken voluntarily by teachers; (3) work required of teachers; (4) work stimulated by pecuniary rewards or advance in position; (5) miscellaneous.

These lines of work are not always distinct from each other; for example, the work undertaken voluntarily is often that suggested by the superintendent and oftentimes, no doubt, suggested so directly as to seem almost a requirement.

I. *Supervision*

The first method for the improvement of teachers, and the one in most general use, is that of supervision in its various forms. In the smaller cities, the teacher has a peculiar advantage because she is under the supervision of a principal, who has under him but a few teachers, and also the supervision of a superintendent, whose entire corps may be less than one hundred, so that every teacher is known intimately by both the principal and the superintendent and the needs of each one may be carefully discussed and

promptly met. In many of the smaller cities, in addition to the regular teachers there are special teachers of music, drawing, manual training, physical training. These teachers either conduct the work in their respective departments themselves or supervise the work as done by the regular teacher. Where the latter course is pursued, the special teacher gives model lessons in each of the classrooms, criticizes the work that has been done since the last visit, gives directions for future work, and holds classes or institutes for the instruction of teachers in these branches. In many cities the entire work in these special subjects is under the care of the special teachers and the individual principals have little responsibility in the matter.

In a few cities supervision is further extended. In Baltimore, for example, grade supervisors devote their attention to the supervision of the work in one or two grades, the advantage being that by having supervision of such a narrow range of work the supervisor becomes very expert, and the work in all of the schools is brought up to the standard of the excellence of the supervisor herself as far as that is consistent with the varying ability of the teachers with whom she works. She has the advantage of comparing the work done in her special grades in the various schools in the city—an advantage which the principal confined to one building cannot have.

In other places, the work is still further subdivided by the appointment of supervisors of a single subject, as, for instance, arithmetic, throughout the primary grades. A very interesting form of supervision is that given by the supervisor of substitutes, which is reported from one or two cities. This teacher visits each teacher as she begins her work, helps her in the preparation of outlines and in the various problems that arise, meets the entire body of substitutes at stated intervals for purposes of study and instruction. She also visits the newly appointed teacher, works with her in the classroom for a day at a time, and then sends her to visit some other classroom while the supervisor takes charge of the work. On the third day, she remains with the new teacher, discusses with her the conditions that have arisen in her absence and the work which she has seen in the school which she visited.

A most interesting work for associations of schools in rural

communities is that undertaken by Superintendent Cook, in Baltimore County (Md.). Here a supervisor has been appointed to visit and instruct teachers in the work of the primary grades, and another to instruct them in the work in the grammar grades. The supervisor meets each group of teachers once a month and small groups are organized for the consideration of special studies on Saturdays or in the evenings. The board of education contributes toward the expense of these classes.

Beyond question this work of supervision is and always will be the most important of all the ways in which the character of the teaching is to be improved. As the superintendent is, so is the force, especially in the smaller cities where the personality of the superintendent can be felt through all the parts of the system. This influence is exerted in many ways. Mr. Gay, of Haverhill, says:

In visits for personal inspection and suggestion, I am generous in praise of the good things which I see, and criticise only when I believe my criticism will be received in the right spirit and will probably work improvement. I gave up years ago all criticism for the sake of freeing myself from responsibility. Often I refrain from direct criticism and talk to the principal of the school concerning the teacher's faults. I am reaching the conclusion that I would better always consult the principal before making criticism of any kind. The reason for this will be appreciated by every experienced superintendent.

The best method of helping teachers is, I believe, by example. The superintendent or principal should be always at his post of duty, and always within call of, every teacher to assist her in any possible way. Early and late, in season and out of season, school days and holidays, it should be known that he is trying to do all that his time and strength will permit to promote the interests of the schools. He must always say "Come;" must study harder and work more hours than his teachers; must set a pace which his best teachers find it impossible to follow. Otherwise, he should resign and let some one who will do more and better work take his place.

Mr. Arthur Le Fevre, of Victoria, Tex., gives some good theoretical views regarding the work of the superintendent.

His work with teachers should be toward forming right ideals as to education, the training of enlightened, steadfast character, the developing of power, of inner freedom, of courage; to point out to teachers the futility of conning textbooks prepared for young pupils and to supply a list of books belonging to the real literature of each branch of study. If a teacher of any

subject has read in it only children's schoolbooks, an almost incredible sense of power and of widened horizon would result from the perusal of a book opening an insight into the true perspective of that field of human achievement and present effort. What has been dark or trivial and empty, would forthwith become for the teacher and pupil full of bright and stimulating interest.

He should train teachers, principals, and supervisors into a spirit of sincere co-operation. Each member of the force should be made to feel a responsibility for a high standard of accomplishment in his department, and also for the work of the whole system. Each member of the force should be free in minor details in executing the work assigned.

It should be the constant care of the superintendent to make the conditions under which the work of teaching is done as favorable as possible.

Next in importance to the supervision of the superintendent comes that of the principal. Indeed, in our larger cities, his supervision, as far as it touches the work of the individual teacher, is by far the more important. He is often in charge of more pupils than are found in the entire school population of a moderate-size town. The work of a given school in one of our cosmopolitan cities may be strikingly different from that of its neighbors. One school may be made up of Jewish children, an adjoining one of Italian, and a third, of Swedish. In one school in Chicago there are pupils representing nearly every prominent race of Europe and many of the smaller ones. Each school must adapt itself to the needs of its community. This work must have a unity and no one can unify it but the principal; his office should be magnified, his responsibility increased. The policy of instruction, whether in the regular or in the special subjects, should be his and not that of the visiting supervisor, no matter how expert she may be in her particular line. Expert assistance he, of course, needs; but as far as is possible, this should come from teachers located permanently in the school. Every school faculty should contain such expert talent. If the importance of this policy is appreciated and a consistent effort is made to bring about the result just mentioned, it will be surprising to find out how much latent talent there exists in every school corps—talent which may be wonderfully developed by careful training. This development is difficult if a teacher is placed in charge of a single room for an entire year and expected to teach all the sub-

jects in the curriculum. But even if this plan is pursued, the principal, by carefully noticing the special aptitudes of his teachers, can utilize the special skill of each to instruct the others, and thus, in a measure, give to each teacher in his school the benefit of the help of the best work of all. This policy not only will have a helpful initial influence upon the work of the school, but the effect is cumulative. Every one likes to be appreciated and if a teacher feels that her special talent is recognized, she will labor earnestly to improve herself still further in this direction. A secondary and very vital gain will result from the spirit of friendliness and mutual helpfulness developed in the school. This will be of great value. The united efforts of twenty-five people are of immensely more influence than the separate efforts of the same number.

Another, and still better way to make use of the talents of the various teachers is by means of the so-called departmental plan of instruction. This method, by relieving teachers from the necessity of preparing their work in a great variety of subjects and thus allowing them the opportunity, time, and strength for special preparation in favorite lines, tends to produce a corps of scholarly, expert teachers from one that was previously only of the ordinary grade. This policy has been pursued in many of the schools of Chicago. In one school, where the departmental method is used, the entire work in the ordinary subjects and also in singing, drawing, manual training, and domestic science is carried on by the regular grade teachers. It is surely better to work toward this end than to distract the teacher by requiring her allegiance to supervisors of separate grades, of arithmetic, drawing, sewing, construction work, physical training, etc.

The plan of making the school a unit is of equal and, perhaps, greater importance in the training it gives to the principal. When the principal is relieved of responsibility in the special subjects, he loses interest in them, and these subjects not only suffer from lack of the daily supervision which can be given only by the principal who is present at all times, but they lose by becoming isolated from the other school work. Thus results a lack of unity in the school experience of the children, which is oftentimes detrimental. In Chicago, while there are still special teachers, responsibility has of late years been placed more and more in the hands of the principal

of the school. He is made to feel that the success of the work in drawing, for example, depends as much upon his interest and skill as does the success of the work in the ordinary subjects, such as mathematics or history.

A visiting supervisor should work through the principal, advising with him rather than with the teachers direct. In no case should the supervisor issue orders to the teacher. It should be her business to point out to the principal the needs of the various teachers; to give assistance to these teachers in ways which the principal may decide. This process, while indirect, and hence slow, tends to place responsibility and hence, ultimately, to produce a high degree of efficiency.

From the admirable report of Mr. Van Sickle is quoted the following classification of teachers and statement of the duties of the supervising force in relation to each class:

(1) Superior teachers who need no stimulation other than their own ideals of excellence: By the fine standard of work which they maintain and by their student-like habits they might under favorable conditions, set the pace for the entire teaching force. At the present time, this group is a large one. With this group, supervision is chiefly concerned in gaining their co-operation in working out the problems and in bringing their influences to bear on other teachers in tactful ways.

(2) Teachers possessing a good degree of executive ability and adequate scholarship of the book-learning variety, who resist change because they honestly believe the old ways are better: They are patriotic defenders of the views and traditions and practices in which they were reared. The greater number of these will as strongly support the new when fully convinced of its advantages; but in the absence of positive orders they resist proposed changes until absolutely conclusive demonstration is furnished in a concrete way. Supervision must confidently accept these conditions and furnish demonstration.

(3) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, self-conscious and timid, because unacquainted with standards of work and valid guiding principles, desirous of avoiding observation, doing their work in a more or less perfunctory and fortuitous way: supervision needs to give these teachers courage by an exhibition of standards plainly within their reach and by personal work in their own classrooms.

(4) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, but not conscious of this lack and therefore unaware of any need of assistance:

Some form of positive direction is here necessary in the first stages of supervision.

(5) Teachers yet in the early years of their service: Supervision should be able to concern itself chiefly in keeping these teachers in class 1 so far as their personal attitude is concerned. There will, of course, always be differences among them in scholarship and personal power, but all should have guidance in kind and quantity adapted to prevent any of them, even the weakest, from developing the characteristics of class 2, class 3, or class 4. If these new recruits are to be able to lead children to be open-minded, to hold opinions tentatively, to be sure but not too sure, to be willing to give both sides of a question a hearing before reaching a final conclusion, they must keep themselves open-minded. To aid them in doing this, supervision will keep itself free from dogmatism even in dealing with the youngest teachers.

Teachers of class 1, class 2, and class 5 are willing to have their work seen and valued by competent and trusted supervisors. People who know how to do a thing, or who sincerely think they know how, or who sincerely wish to learn how, are neither afraid nor reluctant to have their work seen by any fair-minded person. Supervisors must be both skilful and fair-minded, and their work must prove that supervision means help.

II. *Voluntary Work*

The second form of work is that undertaken by the teachers themselves either individually or through organizations encouraged by school authorities. This work is very extensive. It is reported from every city from which replies have been received. This is a high tribute to the enthusiasm and devotion of teachers to their work. It takes the form of work in colleges or in normal-school classes, university extension, normal-school extension, book reviews, neighborhood clubs for the study of various subjects, and lecture associations. Providence, Rhode Island, reports that, as a result of an inquiry made some years ago, it was found that of thirty-three high-school men, twenty-three had, while teaching, taken distinct courses at various colleges and several had studied abroad; of forty-four high-school women, thirty-one had done similar work in colleges or elsewhere; eight men had received A.M.'s or Ph.D.'s. These degrees had been given for work accomplished; they were not honorary. Many certificates had been received from Harvard, Clark, and the University of Chicago for summer work; of forty-five kindergartners, forty had pursued studies along the line of their

work, while others had taken work in general culture at Brown University; of 464 grade teachers, 313 had carried on studies of various kinds. During the past winter, several hundred took the Brown University extension course; fifty-six took examinations and received credits toward degrees.

Decatur (Ill.) reported that 90 per cent. of the grade teachers attended summer schools.

One of the most interesting of these voluntary organizations is reported from Kansas City (Mo.). In 1878, Superintendent J. M. Greenwood and a few friends formed a coterie for the study of the modern philosophical systems. Ten years later the scope of topics was widened. These years had been devoted to the study of philosophical systems, literary phases of the world, and economic conditions of the different countries.

The club, now called the "Greenwood Club," is composed of such citizens as are disposed favorably toward a higher and broader education, including teachers, preachers, doctors, lawyers, and business men. The plan of work is simple. There is no formality. A president and a treasurer are the only officers. Subjects are assigned by a committee. A paper from thirty to forty minutes in length is presented by an essayist. After the paper, the subject is before the club and any one present may participate in the discussion.

The general influence of this organization upon the teaching force of the city has been remarkable. Every strong teacher who has been selected to take positions elsewhere on account of superior qualifications has been an active member of this club. The primary object had in view was to give breadth and a wider scope to the general scholarship of the teachers of the city. The topics discussed during the long series of years of the club's existence have been of the highest order and extend over practically the whole range of human interest. A few will show the character: Gaul under Roman Influence; The Rise of Modern Thought; Victor Hugo and His Contemporaries (a long series of meetings); The Early History of Kansas City; The Gospel for the Modern Day Congregation; The Club a Menace to the Home; The Standpoint of the Parent; Municipal Ownership; Recent Progress in Therapeutics.

The solid effects of such a club can scarcely be overestimated. It brings the teacher into contact with the thinking men and women

of other walks of life, and in this way she loses the narrowness and somewhat unpractical cast of thought which is a frequent consequence of long associations with immature minds.

A very valuable work reported from several cities is that of a systematic consideration by committees of principals or teachers of the various topics in the course of study or of various phases of teaching. In Chicago for several years, the principals of the schools were divided up into committees for the study of the regular subjects in the course of study. Each committee began by formulating a tentative plan of subject-matter, materials, and methods of teaching. The details of these plans, especially those portions about which there was a difference of opinion, were then taken up by each principal and discussed with his teachers and tested in actual schoolroom practice. The results of this work in the school were then reported back to the committee and a new formulation was undertaken and new phases of the work taken up. This course was systematically pursued through a long period; the outcome being a series of monographs on the topics of the course of study. These again were utilized in the formation of a tentative course of study. This course was put in practice for one year; at the end of the year reports were received from each school, and a new course formulated. This was again put in practice for a year, and a second series of reports called for. The formulation of this course of study as a result of the latter reports has just been completed though it is considered that the course is by no means fixed. The result of this continuous study into the values and methods used in the schools not only resulted in greatly improving the nature of the material and the methods but also had an extremely helpful influence upon the principals and teachers themselves.

The following very interesting lines of work are reported from St. Louis (Mo.):

First of these should be named the Society of Pedagogy, a purely voluntary organization whose annual membership reaches about fifteen hundred, of which at least twelve hundred are teachers in the St. Louis Public Schools. The section meetings assemble on the first and third Saturday mornings of each month, October to April. The society also maintains a course of lectures during the season, presenting usually eight or ten notable people each season. Some of the topics discussed are the following: pedagogy; edu-

cational psychology; current school topics; the Renaissance; physiography; French; Spanish; manual training; classics; Shakespeare; contemporary literature; United States history; primary geography; singing; physics.

The next notable opportunity presented is in the classes of the Saturday Normal College. These classes are held on the second and fourth Saturday mornings of each month, October to April, and are designed primarily for the apprentice teachers, who are required to attend. They are held in the Critique Room of the Teachers' College, which will permit an audience of about three hundred and is usually filled to its utmost capacity by the voluntary attendance of teachers whose grade work is being illustrated, these classes being always in the nature of practical illustrations.

A third and extremely important opportunity is that furnished by the extension course of the Teachers' College. It is a notable fact that these classes are always filled to their extreme limit.

Length of course: Courses will continue for twenty weeks beginning at the Teachers' College, October 8, and at the Sumner High School, October 9, and closing March, 1908.

Recitation periods: Classes in all subjects will meet once each week at 4:15 P. M. and continue in session one hour.

Regulation as to enrollment and attendance: It is requested that teachers enroll in one course only. No teacher will be allowed to enroll in more than two courses.

Owing to laboratory conditions, the class in biology, will be limited to twenty-four members. It is intended that members in all other classes, except the chorus class, shall not exceed thirty. No class will be organized with less than fifteen members, and any class will be discontinued whose number in attendance for three consecutive weeks falls below ten.

Not more than four nor less than two hours of home study each week will be necessary.

Nature of instruction: Each subject will be presented, as far as possible, from both the academical and pedagogical points of view, and the fullest opportunity will be given for the intellectual activity and growth of each individual student.

III. *Required Work*

To begin with the country teachers: In many counties they are required to attend during the summer an institute of from five to ten days of from five to seven hours each; if the work of these periods involved a series of lines of systematic work, it would be equivalent to carrying one or two courses in college through a year. In addition, they are required during the year, to read two books;

one on a professional subject and one on an academic subject. Oftentimes they are expected to make written reports upon these books or to pass examinations upon them. In a few communities, the teachers are expected to attend summer schools, of from two to four weeks each.

In quite a number of the states the certificate to teach is valid for only a short time—from six months to three years; thus making it necessary for the teacher to pass new examinations at brief intervals. In most of the cities, the candidate's first certificate is valid for one year, but is renewed at the end of the first year if the work has been satisfactory. The certificate is again renewed under the same conditions at the end of the second year and if at the end of the third year the work is still satisfactory, the certificate becomes permanent. During these years of probation, the character of the work is reported upon by the various supervisors, by the principals or superintendents who have observed the work; and, in some instances, where there are special classes for beginners, the completion of certain work in these beginners' classes is taken into account in determining the standing of the young teacher.

For the great body of teachers in cities, the required work takes the form of institutes or study classes; of these, there are a great variety. In Kansas City (Mo.) we find the following:

1. The institute: A regular monthly meeting on Saturdays, from nine to twelve o'clock, organized in three divisions: The Primary Section, the Grammar Section, and the High-School Section. It includes all principals and teachers in the public schools. The first half hour is devoted to the general meeting in charge of the superintendent. From 9:30 to 11, the institute is divided into a number of groups in each of which there is carried on a connected line of study. A few of the topics selected from recent programs indicate the character of the work. Elementary Grade Section: Primitive German Life and Character; Teaching of Spelling, Grammar, Geography, etc. High-School Section: Manual Training, Its Physiological Value, Its Industrial Value, Its Ethical Value; Sociological Problems of Kansas City; Shortcomings of the High-School English Course. At 11 o'clock, the general program is presented, the main feature of which is a formal address by some person of note.

2. The monthly consultation of principals with their teachers on the last Friday of each school month, meeting of one hour: This hour is devoted either to conferences on school management or to intensive study along some one line. In one school, the meetings each year for a series of years, were devoted to the study of some particular topic in literature, a few of which were—Talks on the Study of Literature; Freytag's *Technique of the Drama*; Horne's *Philosophy of Education*.

3. Monthly principal's meeting, from 9 to 12 on Saturdays: The final object of which is to get the best experience from all of the principals and to serve as a means for propagating in the field of education the dominant educational ideas of the world.

The high order of the work done in these meetings is indicated by topics selected from a recent program: Importance of Diplomatic History; The Janitor's Side of the Public School Work; The Scientific and Scholastic Training of the Educators in Germany is the Cause of German Industrial and Commercial Supremacy; A Comparison of the Educational Systems of France and Japan; The Elementary and Secondary Schools of England Compared with the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Missouri.

Papers on these subjects were presented by two principals at each of the meetings. Many cities report a similar series of meetings.

In addition to these, many cities report institutes, which the teachers are required to attend, held by the special teachers of physical training, of drawing, and of music. Also, grade institutes, and institutes in particular subjects as, grammar, history, etc., are held at frequent intervals, especially at the beginning of the year. In the smaller cities, these meetings are presided over by the superintendent of schools. Here all the teachers of a grade are gathered together and some topic is discussed and some work is taken up that is of common interest, or the best methods of teaching subjects of the grades in question are presented by means of model lessons given by teachers who are particularly expert.

In certain small cities, the superintendent conducts a class in professional study meeting once a week for one hour; all teachers are expected to attend this class.

One of the most interesting organizations is the Helena Kin-

dergarten Council which has been in existence for a number of years. It is composed of the teachers of the kindergarten and of the early primary grades. It holds eight meetings a year devoted to a great variety of topics connected with the work of the grades in question. Some of these taken from different programs are as follows: The Child in Action (three meetings); The Intellectual Development of the Child; Kindergarten Out-of-Doors; The Kindergarten and the Primary Grades; The Value of the Positive rather than the Negative in Work; The Kindergarten in Many Lines (topics for an entire year).

The amount that is thus required of a teacher in a year's attendance upon these classes is quite large, certainly in most cases equivalent to two hours a week. In many cases, it is undoubtedly larger. This is not an undue requirement, and if profitably employed must result in great good to the work of the teacher.

IV. *Work Stimulated by Advance in Salary or in Rank*

The teacher, besides endeavoring to improve in directions that are pointed out to her by those with whom she works, must herself be an independent student. This is necessary in order that her intellectual horizon shall be constantly broadening and that her mind be kept pliable and in that state of efficiency designated in the field of athletics as "in training," for in no other way will she be able to grasp the problems that are constantly arising in this, the most complex of professions, and in no other way can she retain her sympathy with the learning minds over which she has care and her ability to direct these minds. Again, teaching, while it is a very conservative profession, is yet rapidly changing both as to methods and as to subject-matter. The teacher who was well equipped ten years ago is now hopelessly out of date unless she has been constantly advancing with the changes in method and in curriculum. Without regular vigorous study, the mind loses its ability to grasp the spirit of these great changes.

Miss Gertrude Edmund of Lowell, Mass., reports:

I know many teachers who are and have been pursuing professional and collegiate courses of study in connection with their regular school work, and in every case which has come under my observation these men and women have been and are today better teachers for having continued their studies.

They are sympathetic in their attitude toward the efforts of the young teachers and pupils; their minds are not decreasing in strength and mental alertness, but are open to receive new truths, and they are willing to embody these truths in practical lines of work.

The previous pages give abundant evidence that many teachers are willing to do this studying with no other motive than the love of learning and the satisfaction of being a master in one's chosen calling. This work is its own best reward, but since it is of value to the schools, it is reasonable that it should be rewarded in a tangible way, by increased salaries and by promotions. Moreover, this external motive will appeal to many who are not moved by the internal stimulus, and these are the ones who, for the good of the service, are most in need of uplifting. In endeavoring to apply this principle several cities have introduced plans which make advancement in rank or in salary depend (1) on excellence of work; (2) on presentation of evidence of some form of self-directed study.

Of the plans which give chief prominence to opportunities for promotion in rank, that of New York City is the most elaborate. This plan provides for a system of licenses which are granted partly upon record of successful service, partly upon examinations in scholarship in academic and professional subjects, and partly upon presentation of certificates showing the completion of courses in academic subjects, in colleges or universities of approved standing. The entire system will be best understood from the report of Dr. Maxwell:

"License No. 1 is granted to candidates upon passing a professional examination in the history and principles of education, and methods of teaching, an examination in academic subjects, an oral examination to enable the examiner to estimate the applicant's use of English and general personal fitness, and a physical examination. The candidate is exempted from the academic examination upon presentation of credentials showing such work as is the equivalent to the ordinary college-entrance requirements."

There are also certain requirements as to experience in teaching.

Higher licenses are granted upon work done at a grade above that required for License No. 1. They are as follows:

Promotion Licenses.—The following are the provisions of the by-laws of the Board of Education relative to a license for promotion:

A license for promotion shall qualify the holder to act as teacher in the grades of the last two years of the elementary-school course, but no person not now teaching in the last two years of the elementary-school course shall be appointed teacher of a graduating class, who, in addition to the holding of the license for promotion, has not served at least two years in other grades of the last two years of the course.

This license shall qualify the holder to act as assistant teacher in an evening high school.

To be eligible for license for promotion to any grade in the last two years of the elementary-school course, applicants must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of License No. 1.

b) Successful experience in teaching, as determined by records and reports of superintendents and principals, equivalent to three years' experience in the public schools of the city of New York, including one year's experience in the city of New York.

c) Examination in the principles and methods of teaching, or, in lieu of such examination, the completion in an approved institution of satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching; and examination in one of the following subjects or groups of subjects as prescribed in the course of study for elementary schools: English (reading, grammar, composition); mathematics (arithmetic, elementary algebra, elementary geometry); history (United States history and civics); geography and elementary science; constructive work and drawing; such other subjects or groups of subjects in the course of study as may be specified by the Board of Superintendents.

Exemption is granted from examination in the principles and methods of teaching to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption for the license is granted from examination in the required academic subjects or groups of subjects, viz., English, mathematics, history, geography, and science, constructive work and drawing, etc.

b) No exemption is granted for studies not included under "principles and methods of teaching." For purposes of exemption under this head "principles and methods of teaching" will be regarded as including science of education, history of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No course will be accepted which was not pursued in a college, university, or extension center recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Assistant to Principal.—The by-laws provide as follows:

A license as assistant to principal or head of department shall qualify the holder for the position of assistant to principal in an elementary school or of principal of an evening elementary school or of a vacation school, or to act as teacher in charge of an elementary school of the fourth order.

To be eligible for license as assistant to principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of a permanent License No. 1, and not less than eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision in the schools of the city of New York, or experience rated as equivalent thereto.

b) A license as principal in elementary schools:

Exemption is granted from examination in English, or in science, or in geography, history, and civics, to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses, which courses shall have been pursued either during the school year for at least two years, or in a university or normal summer school during at least two six-week sessions, or during one school year and one summer session, and shall have amounted to at least one hundred twenty hours, as follows: In the science of education, sixty hours; and in some branch of literature, science, or art, sixty hours.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption is granted for this license from examination in history and principles of education, methods, and school management.

b) The "science of education" will be interpreted to include any professional subjects, namely, principles of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No first-year course in foreign languages will be accepted as a satisfactory course in "literature, science, or art;" but second-year and more advanced work will be so accepted.

d) "An approved institution" is interpreted to mean any institution recognized by the Regents as a college or an extension center.

e) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

f) Two thirty-hour courses will not be counted as a sixty-hour course unless they are in closely related subjects; e. g., a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in advanced French will not

count as a sixty-hour course; but a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in literature will count as a sixty-hour course; so also will a thirty-hour course in methods (general or special) together with a thirty-hour course in school management count as a sixty-hour course.

g) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

h) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Principal.—A license as a principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder for the position of principal of an elementary school, of a truant school, of an elementary evening school, or of an evening high school, provided the licensee holds in the case last mentioned the position of principal of an elementary day school.

NOTES.—A license as principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder to act as principal of an elementary school having a high-school department, provided he has also at least qualification (a) required for license as assistant teacher in a high school.

To be eligible for license as principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with at least eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision. The Master's degree in arts or sciences given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of one year of such experience. The Doctor's degree in philosophy or science, given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of two years of such experience.

b) Successful experience in teaching or supervision in graded schools for at least ten years, at least five of which must have been in public schools, together with the successful completion of university or college courses satisfactory to the Board of Examiners, such courses to be in pedagogical subjects, and to amount to not less than 120 hours.

1. No exemption for this license is granted from examination in professional subjects or in Group A (English literature, grammar and rhetoric).

2. College graduates are exempted from examination in scholarship, except in Group A.

3. Applicants not graduates of colleges, unless exempted as hereinafter provided, are required to pass, in addition to the examinations mentioned in Sec. 1, an examination in two of the following groups: Group B (logic, psychology), Group C (algebra, geometry, trigonometry), Group D (physics chemistry, physiology, and hygiene), Group E (physical and mathematical geography, United States history, civil government), Group F (a language

and its literature, namely, Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, or Anglo-Saxon).

4. Exemption in one or in two of the groups named in Sec. 3 is granted to those who present a diploma or certificate obtained by examination on completion of satisfactory college or university courses.

NOTES.—(a) "College or university courses" are interpreted to mean courses pursued under the direction of a college or university and accepted as counting toward a degree.

b) Elementary, i. e., first and second year, courses in modern foreign languages will not be accepted as college courses, nor will preparatory work in ancient languages be so accepted.

c) Each course must extend over at least one year or one summer session.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) For exemption in any group, at least sixty hours' attendance must have been given to not more than two of the subjects embraced in such group; two thirty-hour courses will not be counted for exemption in any group, unless the subjects covered by such courses fall within the same group.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies required to establish the eligibility of applicants for License No. 1.

High-School Teachers.—(1) Junior Teacher: To be eligible for license as junior teacher in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with the completion of a satisfactory pedagogical course of at least one year, or, in lieu of such course, one year's satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools.

2) Assistant Teacher: To be eligible for license as assistant teacher in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and not less than three years' satisfactory experience as a teacher or as a laboratory assistant in secondary schools or in colleges. One year of satisfactory post-graduate work resulting in a degree may be accepted in lieu of one year of the required experience in teaching. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, satisfactory experience in business, not exceeding two years in duration, may be accepted in lieu of an equal period in teaching.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and two years' satisfactory post-graduate work in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license and in the science of education, and one year of satisfactory experience in teaching in colleges or in secondary schools or in the last two years of elementary

schools, which year of experience must not be concurrent with said post-graduate work. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, one year of satisfactory experience in business may be accepted in lieu of the one year of teaching

c) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching, at least two of which shall have been in high schools or in the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and type-writing, satisfactory experience in business, not to exceed three years, may be accepted year for year in lieu of any part of the required experience in teaching.

d) Graduation upon completion of a satisfactory high-school course, or an equivalent academic education; seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching, including either two years of teaching in grades of the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools, or five years of teaching in secondary schools; and the completion of satisfactory university or college courses in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license amounting to not less than 120 hours, at least thirty of which shall have been in the science of education. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects or stenography and typewriting satisfactory experience in business may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part, not exceeding five years, of the required experience in teaching, and satisfactory commercial courses of study may be accepted in lieu of the required college courses.

e) Applicants for license to teach music, art, physical training, or any branch of manual training, may qualify under any of the preceding heads, and also under the following:

Graduation from a satisfactory high-school course, or from an institution of equal or higher rank, and two years of professional training in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license; and four years' satisfactory experience in teaching such special subject. In the case of teachers of manual training, satisfactory experience in shop practice, not to exceed two years, may be accepted in lieu of any equal period of experience in teaching.

3) First Assistant: License as first assistant in high schools may be granted in any of the following subjects: English; classical languages; modern languages; history and civics; economics; biological science; physical science, including physics, chemistry, geography, physiography; mathematics; mechanic arts; fine arts; commercial subjects.

To be eligible for license as first assistant in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory

post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges, three of which shall have been in the New York City high schools.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges. For applicants for license as first assistant in commercial subjects, experience in business satisfactory to the Board of Examiners may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part of the required college or post-graduate study.

4) Principal: To be eligible for license as principal in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and ten years' satisfactory experience in teaching or supervision, at least five of which must have been in secondary schools, in the position of superintendent or in that of examiner of the city of New York.

Dr. Maxwell reports that a very large proportion of the teaching force is constantly attending lectures in the two universities, and in other approved institutions, with a view to taking degrees and qualifying for the higher licenses in the school system.

Altogether there are fifteen varieties of certificates and each offers an opportunity for the exercise of a different sort of talent in the teacher and while each calls for written examinations in certain subjects, a large part of the credits necessary to obtain an advanced license is given for systematic study carried on through a somewhat lengthy period under teachers of the highest order. If there is any point at which the system seems to be inadequate, it is in that it offers so little encouragement to the teachers who do the work in the important years, one to six inclusive, providing the teachers prefer to remain in the work of these grades. The teachers of these grades form a very large majority of the teaching force.

There are somewhat similar grades of certificates in other school systems, though in none is the plan so fully worked out, and none, so far as reported, has adopted the admirable plan of allowing credits for studies pursued to be substituted for written examinations.

In Baltimore, besides the maximum grade salary which every good teacher may secure, there are other salaries still higher, based

on special work or duties partly executive. For example, there are at the present time, twenty positions in preparatory classes carrying a higher salary, twenty-two in special and ungraded classes, nineteen in directing practice work in the training schools, three in grade supervision, one hundred and four in vice-principalships, and twenty-three principalships. There are in all one hundred and ninety-nine of these positions carrying advanced salary in a total of about seventeen hundred elementary-school positions, or about eleven per cent. That is to say, one teacher in every nine is actually occupying a position more remunerative than the regular grade position at the maximum salary for grade work; and, sooner or later, each of the other eight may secure a like reward if, when the opportunity comes, his efficiency is such as to warrant his selection.

The second plan for encouraging teachers to do systematic study is that which reserves certain increases in salary for those who present credentials showing work done along the lines indicated in the rules of the various boards of education. The peculiar advantage of this incentive lies in its direct appeal to every teacher. This plan has been introduced in most cases quite recently and it appears in such a variety of forms that it will be necessary to present several of them in full. In general they are based upon two points, (1) success in schoolroom work and (2) the completion of certain individual lines of study. In several cases, all the details seem to the author to be of such great interest that he has been unwilling to summarize the rules, and has presented them in detail, even at the risk of being somewhat tedious.

A number of cities report plans for recognizing work done in various lines without giving details of the plans. It seems evident that the advance in salaries is adapted to the merits of each case.

Baltimore County allows an increase of \$40 per year for work in Baltimore County summer schools or for work in institutions of higher education.

Kansas City (Kan.) holds monthly meetings from 9 to 12 on Saturdays. Each group of teachers takes up a particular topic and carries it through a year. At the end of the year, examinations are held. A record is kept of all the work done by each teacher in any

educational line. Promotion in salary depends partly upon this record.

The Lincoln (Neb.) plan is as follows:

"Principals and teachers holding certificates, who have attained the maximum salary within their class, shall receive a special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the maximum salary within their class; second, that they shall have received credit for twenty hours university work in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign language, science, English. Of the twenty hours, eight hours shall be required in education; four hours in English. The credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from the pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teachers.

"Principals and teachers who have attained the first special increase, shall receive the second special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the salary resulting from the first special increase; second, that they shall be rated as highly efficient teachers, by the supervision; third, that they shall receive credit for fifteen hours of university work, or the equivalent, in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign languages, science, English. Of the fifteen hours, six hours are required in education and three in English; the credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from her pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teacher.

"The teachers in high schools are allowed two special increases of forty-five dollars per year each upon similar conditions; the work to be done being especially arranged in each case."

The twenty hours referred to in these rules is about the equivalent of one-sixth of an ordinary four-years college course.

The Cincinnati plan is as follows:

"The Cincinnati University is a civic institution of recognized standing among colleges. It takes students as they pass from high

school and gives them a four-year course. In the last two years of the college course, students may elect the training course for teachers in the department which is called the College for Teachers. The Board of Education employs the faculty for this college, spending \$10,000 a year upon it. Five instructors are employed. The university professors also give courses especially adapted to the wants of teachers in various lines. Many of these courses are placed at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, and on Saturdays. About 21 of these courses are especially designed for teachers. Last year there were 350 out of 1,000 teachers who took them. This year, each one of the faculty of the College of Teachers, and the professor of geography, are offering a series of 24 conferences with the grade teachers, each taking one grade. These conferences have been very crowded, as many as 110 teachers of a grade applying for the work. In these conferences, selected teachers state what they have done in their grade in nature work or other subjects during the past week, and the matter is then discussed by all. The object is to bring all the teaching of the schools up to the standing of the eight or ten best teachers of the grade, and to prevent stereotyped method by hearing from a variety of good teachers. The conductor works with the teacher who presents the matter so that they are in harmony in their ideas, the conductor really directing the whole trend of thought of the conference.

"From the 1,000 teachers in our schools last year, there were 1,200 professional courses taken by teachers. The year before there were 1,100.

"The incentive to do professional work lies in the provision of the rules of the Board, adopted three years ago, to make the last \$50 of the maximum salary dependent upon satisfactory teaching and professional study. Teachers must secure eight credits (not more than two a year) after they have begun teaching, in order to be eligible to the highest salary. In order to remain eligible, they must take professional courses approved by the superintendent, at least every other year; twenty-four meetings a year."

The Boston plan is as follows:

"A plan of promotional examinations has been formulated recently. According to this plan, promotional examinations are held in October and May of each year. These examinations consist of

three parts: success in the school during the preceding year; professional study and academic study in some one line. All teachers excepting principals and directors whose salary is on a sliding scale with a fixed increase for each successive year of service, must take the promotional examination next following the anniversary of the date on which they began service. Teachers successfully passing the aforesaid examination shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule on the first of January or the first of September next following the date of the examination. Teachers who fail to pass the examination shall remain on the salary of the second year of their respective schedule for another year when they shall again be examined in the same manner. If they successfully pass the examination, they shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule, and thereafter shall be advanced regularly on succeeding anniversaries until the sixth year of salary in their respective schedule is reached. Employment of teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination on two successive occasions, shall terminate after the first of September next following the date of the second examination.

"Teachers who are receiving the sixth-year salary of their respective schedule shall be examined before being placed upon the seventh year of their respective schedule. This examination consists of three parts: success in school during the preceding year; professional study; academic study in some one line. The teachers who pass this examination shall be regularly advanced on succeeding anniversaries until the maximum salary of their rank or grade is reached. Teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination or do not wish to take the examination shall remain on the sixth-year salary of their respective schedules until such time as they have passed this examination.

"Teachers who have successfully passed the two prescribed examinations shall not be required to pass additional promotional examination because of the change of rank.

"Teachers who, on entering the service, are placed on the advanced salary or who are promoted before passing both examinations, shall successfully pass the two prescribed promotional examinations before receiving the maximum salaries of their respective schedules.

"Teachers appointed to begin service prior to September, 1906, are exempt from the preceding regulations relating to promotional examinations excepting that the superintendent shall have authority to require of any teacher in the service to take a promotional examination in May of any year. Teachers failing to pass that examination must again be examined in the following May. The employment of teachers who have been so required to take the promotional examination and who have failed to pass the examination on two successive occasions shall terminate on August 31 next following the date of the second examination."

The following are details of the first of the above mentioned examinations. Those for the second examination have not as yet been formulated:

Success in teaching: Careful attention is given the year preceding examination to the quality of the teachers' work in their classrooms, but no separate or special examination is required to determine their markings in this particular.

Professional subjects, (1) for high-school teachers: first, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods used by the candidate during the preceding year in teaching any one subject that the candidate shall select; second, a written examination, one hour in length, upon one of a series of pedagogical works concerning phases of secondary education.

2) For all other teachers a similar plan is pursued, namely, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods of some subject the candidate is engaged in teaching; a written examination, one hour in length, upon some pedagogical work which deals with the line of teaching pursued by the candidate.

For purposes of the examination, the teachers are divided into teachers of grades 5 to 8; teachers of grades 1 to 4; teachers of kindergartens; teachers of special classes; teachers of manual training, sewing, cookery.

Examination in academic subjects, (1) high-school teachers: a written examination one hour in length upon any one of the following subjects not taught by the candidate during the preceding year, that he shall select: history of modern England; Dante's *Divine Comedy*; Goethe's *Faust*; history of music in the 19th cen-

tury; history of art. Certain texts are recommended in connection with each subject.

2) For teachers of grades 6 to 8, a written examination, one hour in length, upon any one of the following: American literature; English history as related to American history from 1500 A. D. to 1800 A. D.; physical geography; plane geometry.

3) For teachers of grades 1 to 5, the topics are: history of the United States; geography; mythology—age of fable.

4) For kindergarten teachers, the *Odyssey*.

5) For teachers of special classes, psychology of childhood.

6) For teachers of manual training and sewing, composition and design.

7) For teachers of cookery, chemistry applied to cookery.

In each case, suitable texts are recommended.

The Kansas City (Mo.) plan is as follows:

"With the general movement in 1903 to give our elementary teachers better salaries, the feeling was universal that they should receive for their services adequate compensation. In the corps there were teachers of all degrees of skill and attainments. Many had passed the regular examination at the first trial, while no inconsiderable number had carried old passing grades over for three or four examinations in order to secure a permanent certificate. Others, again, who had been appointed subject to examination, had received only temporary permits to teach till the next examination and seemed to stick there. Under the circumstances, to have granted a uniform flat raise in salaries, thus putting the weak and poorer class of teachers on the same footing as the best teachers on length of service only, would have been in the judgment of the Board and the superintendent, to reduce the entire teaching force to the lowest possible state of inefficiency without any recourse to recognize skilful and meritorious service. This would have been the simplest and easiest way out of the difficulty, but the effect, present and prospective, would have been the worst possible on the schools, and it would have permanently crippled, if not paralyzed, the work in every department. Prior to this agitation the experienced elementary teacher received \$65 a month for nine months' work each year. By action of the Board for all

elementary teachers who were receiving \$65 a month, or would the next year receive that salary, a flat raise was made to \$72 a month. This increased the pay of every \$585 teacher to \$720 automatically. This was a recognition of term service, but the Board believed in a still further increase of salaries on a scholarship and meritorious service basis. The next step was to work out a system open to all who wished to avail themselves of its provisions, that would enable each teacher by his or her individual effort to receive more salary. After due consideration it was unanimously agreed to by the Board that each teacher whose salary had been advanced to \$720 should be entitled to take the first professional examination to be held in September, 1904. Two professional examinations had been decided upon. The first included: history of education, philosophy of education, school management, and English literature. The standard for passing in each of these subjects was seventy per cent. After an applicant had successfully passed the first examination and taught one year, he or she was eligible to the second professional examination, which embraced the same subjects, except that the history of western Europe had been substituted for English literature.

"A committee of four elementary-school principals, two men and two women, was appointed by the Board to conduct the professional examinations. In making out the questions for examinations they were made in groups of ten in each subject, and three distinct questions in each group, so that the applicant had thirty different questions in each group to select from, but limited so as to take one question only from each group. In the four subjects, instead of forty questions, the applicant had one hundred twenty questions to choose from.

"In September, 1904, two hundred ten teachers passed the first professional examination. Those that passed had their salaries raised to \$760; that is, two hundred ten teachers received \$175 more than they had the year previous. The second examination for this group of teachers was held June, 1905. One hundred seventy-nine passed this examination. After the second professional examination is passed, if the teacher's work is satisfactory, the salary is \$825.

"The effect of the professional examinations has been without precedent in any other city of this country, and it is destined to

have a very marked influence on the teaching force of many city systems.

"At the outset the examinations met with strenuous opposition. Presently, however, the teachers as a body began to look at the matter from other view-points. Not only would they pass the two professional examinations, but as soon as they got through with the examinations, many of them went to work earnestly to obtain a degree from the State University, and ninety are now engaged in university work through the extension department established in this city by the Board of Curators of the University of Missouri. When they began to prepare for the professional examinations so many new activities were set in motion in their minds and so many new lines of thought and broader vistas of historical and philosophical knowledge opened up to them, that they organized themselves into a compact working body, and then they began regular courses of study to perfect themselves in scholarship, knowledge, and power. This is, indeed, the very highest tribute to their energy, sane thinking, and substantial views of real progress.

"Intentionally, the maximum salary for elementary teachers was not closed at the bottom, but left open at the top. Those who go automatically to \$720 are under no compulsion to get out of that class unless they desire to do so. But few ambitious teachers, however, are willing to stop there."

Although no city reported more elaborate or a greater variety of agencies of the usual sort for the improvement of teachers, such as institutes, voluntary organizations, teachers' meetings, principals' meetings, than did Kansas City, so that the ordinary incentives toward improvement have here received a most thorough test, yet the report from that city contains the following:

"The influence that more than any other one thing has stimulated study among the teachers, is the professional examination. It came upon them much in the nature of an earthquake or a tidal wave, with the result that a new system has replaced the old. It put the city schools twenty years ahead of themselves at one step. It has produced a different attitude of mind among the majority of our teachers."

The Baltimore plan is as follows:

In rearranging the salary schedule the Board has finally been

able to provide a respectable minimum salary of \$504 per annum, which all teachers of promise reach after one successful year as regularly elected teachers. The way is then open to each for an advance to \$700 per annum in increments given annually for five years upon satisfactory evidence of efficiency and progress. The special kind of progress required for advance from \$504 to \$600 is increased skill in English. This is tested by an examination. For a year or two after leaving the City Training School no line of professional study for the young teacher will, we think, yield results as useful to the school system as study tending toward accuracy and facility in the use of the mother tongue. The examination in English for 1907 is explained in the following:²

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART I—ENGLISH

The rule for the first advance of teachers' salaries beyond \$504 (Promotional Examination, Part I) prescribes as one requirement "an impersonal test in the correct and effective use and interpretation of English." It is a well-known fact that many students secure a satisfactory general average of scholarship at graduation from the high school when their equipment and power in English are not at that time equal to a teacher's needs; yet such graduates frequently develop afterwards into very good teachers. All candidates for the first promotion in the teaching service should be able to show that since their graduation from the high school they have attained that sound judgment and refined taste in English which is the outcome of wider reading and study and greater maturity of mind than can be expected in high-school students. The examination in English, therefore, is set for the purpose of ascertaining (1) whether the teacher's own hold upon English is satisfactory; and (2) whether the teacher is in possession of some good aims and methods for the instruction of children in English composition and literature.

A teacher should be able to speak and write English with absolute correctness, and also to interpret correctly any ordinary piece of classic poetry or prose. This requirement, though, is not extensive enough; for in fact quite meager attainments suffice to make one simply correct in the use and understanding of English. Many persons speak and write in a way that is not incorrect; but their

² Taken from Supt. J. H. Van Sickle's report.

English is decidedly ineffective. Mere correctness in English is not enough to insure success in teaching.

To succeed in the classroom one's words must be effective; and effective English, does not come unsought. For the production of effective English the teacher needs all the art that can be mustered. Similarly, the teacher must be able not only to understand classic literature, but also to interpret it effectively to children; and expertness in interpretation can be secured only by systematic study.

As it is necessary for the teacher to have an effective command of English, and as it is improbable that he can gain such command without deliberate study and practice, it would seem that any candidate for promotion ought to be more than willing to show that he has pursued a course in English comprehensive enough to include a review of grammar; a good introduction into rhetoric, accompanied by sufficient practice in composition; and a careful study of a number of English classics.

Particular texts are named in order to offer to teachers who desire to make definite preparation for this examination a specific set of books to work upon. It must, however, always be remembered that no talismanic character resides in any selection of texts; others would serve quite as well.

The aim of any course in English is not primarily informational, to make one acquainted with particular pieces of literature; it is disciplinary and cultural, to create in one by the intensive study of a certain number of classics some critical insight and some literary power. Consequently the texts here selected are taken intentionally from those authors that are known to every well-read person, so that the candidate will not be burdened with the task of studying up a mass of new subject-matter; but will on the contrary need simply to make ready for some interpretative work upon classics with which he is already familiar. It is to be noted further that in no case will the memorizing of minute details be deemed sufficient to outweigh poor judgment or illogical reasoning.

The special kind of progress which we wish next to emphasize is the ability to discover problems in the work one is actually doing so that the professional growth may occur through the doing of each day's work in a professional way. Satisfactory evidence of such

progress may be submitted at any time after the advance to \$600 has been realized. It consists of an essay and discussion, a classroom demonstration, and an examination on two professional books.

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART II—STUDY OF A SPECIAL PROBLEM

It will be observed that the promotional requirement for teachers of experience is not an examination in the ordinary sense of that term. It is given not at all for the purpose of finding out how much teachers know, and not wholly to find out what they can do. It has a dynamic purpose: to direct attention to problems which press for solution, and to cultivate in teachers a tendency to deal with these problems in a thoughtful way.

All teachers after receiving a salary of \$600 for one year, provided they are competent to teach the regular subjects of their respective grades, may become eligible to receive a salary of \$700 per annum by passing the second part of the promotional examination, which is defined as follows:

The Promotional Examination, Part II, shall consist of (a) a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching or the study of a particular group of children; (b) such a defense of the report before a board of examiners, consisting of the superintendent and two other members selected by him, as will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study; and, when required, (c) a classroom demonstration before a board similarly composed.

It will be observed that the rule defines the essay as "a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching, or the study of a particular group of children." This means that the teacher is not expected to prepare an abstract or academic discussion having no relation to his own classroom problems. The essay should, on the contrary, grow out of the candidate's actual teaching; so that, instead of his being distracted from practical problems while working for the promotional examination, he shall be the more intently studying his daily work. And in case the examiners think that an essay has been written with too little reference to the candidate's actual teaching, they will feel at liberty to call for the "classroom demonstration," in which it must be shown that the candidate was not merely theorizing in his essay.

Teachers need not hesitate to attempt such essays as are con-

templated in the rule. No great display of learning is expected, but only a clear and simple presentation of everyday schoolroom experiences that have had some educational significance for the writer. To the observant teacher, who is really trying to understand the forty children committed to his care, every school day affords such experiences; and his experiences will not exactly duplicate those of any other teacher, for his children are in many particulars unlike any other children. His observations may tend to verify or contradict what he has previously read or thought; and in either case he will be led to read further in books that treat of the aspect of teaching which has attracted his interest. Out of such reading and observation and thought will come ideas well worth being committed to writing; and these when clearly and definitely stated will doubtless form an acceptable essay. Or a teacher may secure permission to apply to his class some special plan of teaching or governing, and from his day-to-day records of this plan draw up an interesting and instructive discussion. Or why should not a teacher undertake to throw light upon classroom problems by showing how one or another procedure appears from the child's point of view? Let him show, for example, how the child is affected by this or that attitude on the teacher's part, or by this or that requirement in discipline or study. This would certainly involve "the study of a particular group of children," and would therefore, if well done, fully satisfy the requirement. Hundreds of teachers have experiences just as interesting and just as worthy of permanent record as many of those which have in recent years found a ready market in the form of magazine articles. In fact, there are as many ways of satisfying the essay requirement as there are different tastes and aptitudes among teachers; and every good teacher is sure to become a better teacher by undertaking from time to time some such composition.

The essay when presented must be accompanied by an outline showing the trend of the argument and the conclusions reached, and by a list of the books consulted in making the study. From the list of books the candidate will submit for approval two, upon which will be based the discussion that "will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study." As a special caution on the use of authorities in preparing the essay, it is recom-

mended that candidates indulge but little, if at all, in quotations. Quotations often produce the effect of needless and obstructive insertions in an otherwise straightforward and coherent discussion: and they also tend frequently to make an argument appear less sincere than if the writer had set it forth in his own style. But in case a candidate considers it necessary, at a particular point, to insert a quotation, he should at least attach a foot-note citing his authority by title and page. It may be added that such slight modification of another writer's sentence as the alteration of a word or two, does not relieve one of the obligation of acknowledging the source.

As a teacher's classroom work must be entirely satisfactory when he comes up in Promotional Examination, Part II, he may get a preliminary judgment on his teaching before he undertakes his essay or at any time during its composition. Under the rules governing advance in salaries, the concurrence of the superintendent with the principal in a favorable judgment, is required.

The formal report upon the actual class work of a candidate in this examination cannot be made until the other conditions set by the rule have been met; but the candidate is of course entitled to timely information as to whether his teaching is likely to be approved under the requirements for advance to the maximum salary.

The following are a few topics of papers in Promotional Examination Part II. They are taken at random: Self Governing History Classes (by a teacher in a departmental group); The Teaching of Reading to non-English-Speaking Children; Seat Work in its Relation to the Recitation; Departmental Teaching in a Three-Teacher Group; A German Primer (MS of a book actually prepared for publication by a teacher of first grade in an English-German School; it was fully illustrated and accompanied by a chart—much superior to book in use); Everyday Difficulties in Teaching Beginners Latin; Use and Abuse of the Study Period; Foreign Travel as an Aid in Teaching Geography; The Ungraded Class; The Service of Music in the Schoolroom; Two Months of Experiment in Combining Individual, Sectional, and Class Methods of Teaching; The Argument from Experience in Introducing High-School Subjects into the Upper Grammar Grades; Group Teaching; Flexible Grading; Use of Games in Teaching French and German to Children in Seventh and Eighth Grades (the teacher invented several games).

It is difficult to imagine work that would be of more value professionally to a teacher than that of preparing during her actual teaching of a given subject such a study of that subject as these topics suggest.

When the present salary schedule was adopted, teachers of five years' experience in the Baltimore schools who had been rated as good teachers by their respective principals for the three successive years immediately preceding were declared exempt from the English examination and were at once advanced to \$600 per annum. Those not so rated by their principals, ninety-seven in number, were required to make such improvement in their work as would justify a satisfactory rating before they could receive the increase; but they were informed that they, like the others, would receive it without examination whenever they secured the required record, and that all necessary assistance would be given them. Grade supervision became absolutely necessary at this point. In no other way, except by actual attendance at a training school, could any of these teachers have received sufficient assistance. To be effective in such cases the help must be expert and individual. It must fit the case. Accordingly, expert teachers selected as grade supervisors were assigned by the superintendent to represent him in learning the special needs of this class of teachers and in helping them in every possible way. The supervisors were left entirely unhampered by any special instructions from the superintendent. Each bore a letter of introduction, but as a matter of fact, the letter was seldom presented to the teacher, a few informal words bringing about freer relations. Nevertheless it has proved invaluable in cases where the personality of the teacher visited seemed to indicate that a formal business footing would be more agreeable to her.

The supervisors sought to indicate selection of subject-matter, methods of presenting it, and methods of discipline. They worked out entire plans for the use of the teachers, following this by helping them to work out other plans and, a later step, by sending suggestions for improvement of plans which these teachers sent to them by mail. This individual work was supplemented, whenever possible by a general teachers' meeting.

The result of this plan of working individually with teachers who had failed to make good under general supervision is that

sixty-eight out of the ninety-seven have been pronounced good by the same principals who had not previously felt justified in making a favorable report.

Too much cannot be said in commendation of the way in which these teachers as a body co-operated with the supervisors in working out special problems in their individual rooms—the frank statement of their own difficulties, the good will with which they joined the supervisors in meeting these difficulties, and the hard work they put on any indicated plan. It must be distinctly understood that, while they very naturally and properly wished for the increase in salary which improved work would bring, they were not limited by this view, but endeavored to attain a higher grade of work for its own sake.

Similar work is needed annually with a large number of the newer teachers who are endeavoring to secure a record in classroom work that will make them eligible to take Promotional Examination, Part I, and with an equally large number who are anxious about the “classroom demonstration,” which is a factor in Part II. These teachers wish to get assurance in advance of the examination that if they enter it, their record in classroom work will not hold them back. The grade supervision attempted thus far has been of this special nature; it has had some definite purpose to accomplish. Put upon this basis, grade supervision is a welcome help. The supervisor comes as a friend who has no other purpose than an endeavor to aid the teacher in reaching a desired goal.

The Chicago (Ill.) plan is as follows:

Teachers may be promoted to higher groups of salaries in any one of three ways: (1) by submitting evidence of the completion of the required study courses, either in the Normal Extension Department or in some degree-conferring institution, pp. 55-62; (2) by taking examinations in the study courses referred to above; (3) by taking the promotional examination. This examination, in the case of elementary teachers, consists of two papers, one in professional study, and one in some academic subject. In the case of principals, teachers in high schools, and teachers in normal practice schools, the examination consists of one paper in professional study.

Of these plans for the advancement of teachers, the one based

upon examinations is the oldest. When it was adopted it immediately caused a great demand for instructors in the various subjects in which examinations could be taken. In order to meet this demand, the Board of Education undertook a line of work which has been productive of most remarkable results, viz., that of normal extension. The plan in brief is this: The Board of Education agrees to furnish to any group of teachers of fifteen or more, in any part of the city, an instructor in any of the lines of work for which credit is given. Many of these classes meet in various halls in the central part of the city, the expenses of the rental of these halls being paid by the Board of Education. Other classes meet at the Normal School and in schoolrooms scattered throughout the city. These classes may meet at 4 o'clock in the afternoon of any school day excepting Monday, and at any hour between 9 and 12 on Saturday morning.

The first classes organized were largely institute classes of one hour each conducted chiefly on the lecture plan. It was found that the method and the length of the recitation period were not productive of the highest degree of efficiency from the standpoint of real scholarship. With the adoption of the plan for credits for work done in the normal-extension classes, the institute classes have been practically abandoned, the teachers themselves finding that they could get the work they needed more satisfactorily in the twenty-four recitations of one and one-half hours each than in the thirty-six lectures of one hour each.

The study class has certain advantages which are lacking from other forms of work undertaken for teachers, such as lectures, institutes, and grade meetings, in that the study class calls for vigorous application, serious, long-continued intellectual effort on the part of the teacher. In the lecture system of instruction, whether the lecture is a single one delivered by some great leader of thought or whether the lectures are arranged in a series as in the ordinary institute, the hearers are in a receptive attitude, while in the study class, those who undertake the work give forth to their teachers, the results of their mental activity. From the lecture, the ordinary listener carries away at best only a few suggestions and a certain amount of spiritual uplift. What one

has gained by hard study and has reproduced in oral or written form for criticism has not only become a permanent possession to the student but has also increased his mental power.

Rules of the Chicago Board of Education Relating to Promotional Examinations

CLASSIFICATION OF SALARIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

There shall be a schedule of salaries for teachers in the elementary schools, which shall include two groups of salaries:

The first group of the schedule shall provide for additional advance in salary year by year for teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the second group, and who shall have complied with the conditions named below.

ADVANCEMENT FROM SECOND TO FIRST GROUP

The conditions governing advancement from the second to the first group of salaries for elementary teachers and head assistants shall be as follows:

Elementary teachers.—Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Those teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, and whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, and who shall attain an average of eighty per cent. or above in the following tests:

a) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in the lines of professional study and training, including the subjects of school management, pedagogy, psychology, and the history of education.

b) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in any one of the following fields of academic work:

English language and literature; general history; physical science; biological science; foreign languages (Latin, Greek, German, French, Spanish); algebra and geometry; music; drawing;

manual training; household arts; geography (covering physical, mathematical, and commercial geography, with geology); physical culture (covering anatomy and physiology, theory of gymnastics, method of teaching, preparation of sets of exercises for different grades, and practical work).

The credit given to the professional examinations shall be twice that given to the academic examinations, and an average mark of eighty per cent. shall be required of all teachers passing these tests. The final mark shall be made up of three items, which shall receive equal credit, as follows:

a) Efficiency mark for the preceding year, as equalized by the Board of District Superintendents,

b) Mark obtained on the professional study paper of the promotional examination, and

c) Mark obtained on the academic paper of the promotional examination, provided that no examination mark below seventy shall be considered, and provided further that, if a candidate divides the examination, the paper taken in the preliminary part shall not be credited in the final average unless the candidate has a mark of eighty or over on such paper.

Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess an elementary principal's certificate, shall be admitted to the first group without examination. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and possess a certificate to teach in the high schools, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only.

Teachers of physical culture, teachers of manual training, and teachers of household arts in elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens and teachers of the deaf, whose mark of efficiency is eighty or above, and who have reached the maximum salary in the

second group, shall be eligible, for admission to the promotional examination provided for the regular teachers in elementary schools, and upon passing it shall be promoted to Group I, it being understood that the academic subject chosen for the promotional examination by the holder of a special certificate shall not be the same subject as that in which the special certificate was granted.

The schedules of salaries for high-school teachers and for principals of elementary schools are arranged in three groups.

High-school teachers.—High-school teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above shall be advanced to the second group after passing an examination in methods of teaching the subjects in which they give instruction. High-school teachers who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing an examination in school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education. No high-school teacher shall be eligible to the principalship of a high school who has not taken the professional examination required of candidates for the first group.

Principals.—Principals of elementary schools who have served a year at the maximum salary in the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the second group of salaries upon passing an examination in school management, and methods of instruction in primary and grammar grades. Principals who have served a year at the maximum salary in the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the first group of salaries upon passing an examination in professional work, including school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education; provided, that nothing in this schedule shall be construed as abolishing the restriction upon the salaries of principals on account of the membership of the schools, as provided elsewhere.

Teachers in normal practice schools.—The conditions governing the advancement of teachers in the practice schools from the second to the first group of salaries shall be as follows:

Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who shall have received the maximum salary of the second group for one year, and whose efficiency mark as a critic teacher shall be eighty-five per cent., or above, for the year preceding the promotional examination to which they shall be eligible for admission, and who shall obtain an average of eighty per cent., or above, in a promotional examination, which shall be based upon the work of expert critic teaching. Teachers who are transferred from any of the grades in the elementary schools to the practice schools, who have previously taken a promotional examination and are in the first group of salaries there, shall be placed in the first group of salaries for teachers in the practice schools.

Promotion of special teachers in the normal practice schools.—Salaries of special teachers of manual training, physical culture, and household arts in the normal practice schools shall be the same as the like positions in the other elementary schools and the schedule of salaries shall apply in these practice schools as in all parts of the city, except that such special teachers assigned to these practice schools shall be classed as critic teachers, and the promotion by examination from the second group to the first shall be according to the rules applying to critic teachers.

Study-Course Plan for Promotion

Teachers, head assistants, and principals who are eligible for promotion shall be allowed, if they so elect, to substitute five courses of study of not less than twenty-four lessons of one and one-half hours each, or thirty-six lessons of one hour each, for the examination requirements contained in the "Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education." Such courses of study offered for advancement to a higher group shall be pursued under the direction of the Chicago Normal School, or in some accredited institution of

learning authorized by law to confer academic degrees. Courses of study pursued in such degree-giving institutions may be accepted for credit toward advancement to a higher group, upon approval of such institutions by the principal of the Chicago Normal School and the superintendent of schools, but no courses of study shall be so accepted which are not superior in grade to the work of the Chicago public high schools. Such courses of study shall be deemed successfully completed when the proper official of the institution shall certify in writing that said course has been satisfactorily completed, and when such report has been approved by the principal of the Normal School and the superintendent of schools; provided, that if such course has been taken in a degree-giving institution, such official shall also certify that said course has been credited in said institution toward the attainment of an academic degree. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the Chicago Normal School shall have authority to take such steps as they deem necessary to satisfy themselves of the satisfactory nature and completion of these courses.

In determining the eligibility of elementary teachers for advancement to a higher group, credit shall be allowed upon the following basis, a general average of eighty per cent. being required:

Efficiency marks for the preceding school year, as given by the principal and one district superintendent, and equalized by the Board of District Superintendents, 5 credits; five courses of study successfully completed, one credit each, 5 credits; total, 10 credits.

Any teacher desiring to do so may substitute a written examination based on the work outlined in any one of the groups of subjects of study authorized under this rule for one or more of the five courses of study required, provided that the mark obtained in each of such examinations shall not be less than seventy-five per cent. in which case the teacher shall receive for said examination the credit belonging to the course of study for which it is substituted. Elementary teachers who comply with the other requirements of this rule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group of salaries.

Teachers of physical culture, household arts, and manual training in the elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens, and teachers of the deaf shall be eligible for advancement to a higher group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that any courses of study or examinations offered in subjects in which their special certificates were granted shall be of an advanced nature.

Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the third to the second group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that no course of study or examination shall be accredited to any teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school, unless said work is such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the second to the first group upon conditions similar to those required for advancement from the third to the second group, provided that the courses of study or examinations offered for advancement to the first group, including any previously offered for advancement from the third to the second group, shall be equal in amount to a year's work such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. And provided further, that after June 30, 1907, no teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school shall be eligible for advancement to the first group unless his efficiency average for the preceding school year is eighty-five or over for the year preceding that in which the examination was taken. In addition to the principal's efficiency mark each high-school teacher shall be given a mark by another supervisory officer.

The courses of study provided for in the above rule shall be elected from courses included in the following groups of subjects:

Education, including history and philosophy of education, school organization, science and art of instruction, special method, and educational ideals and classics.

Psychology, including introductory psychology, genetic and functional psychology, psychology applied to education, compara-

tive psychology, the psychology of special subjects, and the psychology of abnormal, sub-normal, and defective children.

Mathematics, solid geometry, college algebra, trigonometry, analytics, and calculus.

Physical Science, including physics and chemistry.

Geographical Science, including physical, mathematical, political, and commercial geography, geology, and geographic drawing.

Biological Science, including zoölogy, botany, physiology, hygiene, and nature-study.

Physical Education, including applied anatomy, the physiology of exercise, and gymnastic history, theory, and practice.

Music, including both vocal and instrumental music, elementary harmony and composition, and the history of music.

English Language and Literature, including grammar, composition, rhetoric, oral reading, the study of English and American authors, and of literary types, periods, movements, and history.

Foreign Language, Latin, Greek, French, German, or Spanish, including literature, grammar, composition, and the history of the language and literature.

History, including the history of the United States, the mediaeval and modern history of European countries, and the history of the ancient world.

Political Science, including civics, economics, sociology, and industrial history.

Art, including drawing, composition and design, color, the study of masterpieces of historic and modern art, the history and philosophy of art, constructive design, and mechanical drawing.

Manual Training, including work in wood, paper, cardboard, leather, metal, textiles, weaving, basketry, clay-modeling, book-binding, applied design, constructive and mechanical design, and the history and philosophy of manual training and the science of its materials.

Sewing, including drafting and pattern-making; cutting, sewing, fitting, constructing, and repairing simple garments; also the study of textiles and fabrics; and the principles of design, proportion, and color harmony.

Cookery and Dietetics, including the structure, composition,

preparation, and serving of foods; food materials and their values and uses; dietetics; and hygienic cookery.

No course of study or examination taken in the normal extension department prior to September, 1904, or in degree-giving institutions prior to passing the last examination for promotion in Chicago, or prior to the assignment in the Chicago public schools of the teacher or principal offering it, shall be accredited under this rule, excepting that any teacher who has not yet completed the promotional examination, but who has credit for one subject in that examination, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group. A teacher or principal who has received credit under these rules for a course of study or examination shall not receive an additional credit for the completion of the same course of study or examination a second time. No teacher shall be permitted to enroll in more than two courses in any one school year, but this restriction shall not apply to courses taken in the summer term of the Normal School. At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher.

The fact that a high-school teacher is in the second group will be considered evidence that he or she has completed the requirements for promotion from Group III to Group II, namely, five courses of study of not less than thirty-six hours each.

For promotion from Group II to Group I the rule requires (including the five courses offered for promotion from Group III to Group II) one year's work of a grade which will be accepted in any approved degree-giving institution toward the degree of Master of Arts. One year's work in such institutions is usually understood to be nine courses of study aggregating about 430 hours.

Any course which is accepted by an approved degree-giving institution toward the attainment of the degree of Master of Arts will be accepted toward this promotion, whether it is technically listed in the graduate schools or in the senior colleges.

College courses aggregating a number of hours equal to the number of hours required in four courses of study of thirty-six hours each will be accepted as the equivalents of such courses.

The work offered should not, however, cover more than two general subjects.

The same ruling is held applicable to elementary principals.

One of the fundamental ideas of this promotional plan is that it tends to keep teachers in touch with modern scholarship. Because of this, attention is called to the provision to the effect that "At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher."

All regularly assigned teachers in the public, parochial, or private schools of Chicago are eligible to attend these classes. Substitutes and cadets are not eligible to enroll. Other teachers not connected regularly with any school are not eligible to attend.

Analysis of Conditions for Promotion

A. TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND HEAD ASSISTANTS

I. *Eligibility*.—A teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, separate marks to be given by the principal and a District Superintendent, and the two to be revised by the Board of District Superintendents.

II. *Promotion*.—A teacher may take either (1) an examination, her final mark to be determined as follows: (a) efficiency mark as above, one-third, (b) mark on professional study paper, one-third, (c) mark on academic paper, one-third; or (2) five study courses of twenty-four lessons (one and one-half hours each) or thirty-six lessons (one hour each), to be pursued under the direction of the normal extension department, or in some institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees; five credits to be given for the teacher's efficiency mark, as above, and five credits for the successful completion of the five courses of study; no teacher to take more than two classes a year, and at least one course to be taken within the two years preceding promotion.

III. *Study Classes*.—Teachers may take their work either (1) in Normal Extension classes in the afternoons or on Saturday mornings from October to April; or (2) in the four weeks' summer term of the Chicago Normal School, classes to be given six

days a week, in two daily periods of one and one-half hours each; or (3) in any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

B. PRINCIPALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

I. *Eligibility*.—For promotion to the second group a principal or high-school teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, and for promotion to the first group a mark of eighty-five or over.

II. *Promotion*.—A principal or high-school teacher may take either (1) an examination on professional subjects; or (2) five study courses in advanced work at any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

The extent of the work which has grown out of this plan is partly shown in the following:

REPORT OF NORMAL EXTENSION CLASSES FOR WEEK ENDING DEC. 14, 1907

Subjects Study Classes	No. Classes	Attendance	Membership	Average attend- ance per class
Education.....	4	192	226	48
Psychology.....	6	177	196	30
Mathematics.....	2	39	46	20
Science.....	8	235	292	29
Geography.....	6	132	170	22
History.....	5	88	99	18
English.....	12	279	326	23
German.....	5	156	170	31
French.....	9	212	270	24
Spanish.....	3	34	53	11
Art.....	31	844	1045	27
Music.....	11	379	458	34
Physical education.....	4	224	254	56
Manual training.....	12	311	357	27
Cookery.....	3	87	87	29
Sewing.....	15	308	492	20
Industrial art.....	40	1289	1521	32
Kindergarten.....	2	57	72	29
Total.....	177	5043	6134	28

The following table shows the number of persons enrolled in extension classes at the close of the year 1906-7:

Elementary teachers	3,228
High-school teachers	46
Principals of elementary schools.....	28
Special teachers	29

Total public-school teachers	3,331
Parochial-school teachers	21
Private-school teachers	21
Unassigned	11

 53

Total enrolled	3,384
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Of the above the following number of persons are enrolled in two classes:

Elementary teachers	857
High-school teachers	9
Principals of elementary schools.....	8
Special teachers	5

Total public-school teachers.....	879
Parochial-school teachers	4
Private-school teachers	4

 8

Total number of students in two classes.....	887
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Total number enrolled in Extension classes during fall term of 1907-8	7,456
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The total expenditure for this work for the year ending December 31, 1907, was \$16,032.18. This does not include cost of heat, light and janitor service in school buildings.

It will be noted from the above schedule that in the selection of studies those are most frequently chosen which have an immediate effect upon the school work. This has a good and a bad side. It shows the eagerness of the teacher to turn her work to account in improving the character of her teaching. It would be better in some ways, if her studies were partly those which took her out of her immediate lines of work, those which induced her to enter more scholarly fields of study.

In addition to the above classes many courses are being pursued

by teachers in the various colleges and art schools in or near the city.

MISCELLANEOUS

Certain other interesting phases of work are mentioned in the reports, some of which are the following:

State Inspector George B. Aiton of the Minnesota high schools recommends that the colleges and normal schools of a given state or a given section of the country arrange uniform study courses for the various grades of teachers in the country and the smaller cities and offer these courses through correspondence with the plan that these courses when satisfactorily completed shall be credited towards diplomas of graduation from normal schools or universities, or toward higher degrees.

A most important work is that undertaken by the Chicago Normal School in the publication of a bi-monthly magazine devoted to the consideration of various phases of modern educational thought. The magazine is edited by Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, principal of the Normal School. The articles are written by members of the Normal School faculty and educators of high standing from other institutions throughout the country. These articles form the basis for part of the study in the Normal School. The magazine is supplied to all of the city schools and in many of them furnishes material for the meetings of the principal with the teachers.

Teachers in the Horace Mann School, New York, and in a few of the other schools reporting may take professional courses in the near-by colleges without expense. It might be well for boards of education generally to agree to pay the tuition of teachers doing work in neighboring institutions of learning.

Several cities report the establishment of an eligible list for appointment. In Boston the appointments are made from the highest three on the list. In Chicago from the list taken in order of rank. In Chicago, in the case of experienced teachers, rank on the eligible list is determined by the average of the mark obtained in examinations with the mark obtained in substitute service. In the case of graduates of the Chicago Normal School, rank is determined by taking the average of the mark given for the two years' course in the Normal School and the mark

obtained in cadet or substitute service during the four months' probation.

In Boston, a teacher may, at the end of the seventh year of service, be given a leave of absence on half-pay for one year of study or travel. In Chicago, a teacher may obtain at any time, a year's leave (but without salary) for study, or leave for travel up to four months.

In a number of cities, the principals are required to record at certain intervals their estimate of the teachers under their charge. This has indirect influence on the work of the teachers and of the principals. It is necessary that the principal should continually study his teachers in order to help them, and the fact that he must record his estimate helps him in making his judgment. The principal is required to estimate the work of the teacher, in such points as ability to discipline, ability to teach, to co-operate with the principal and other teachers, scholarly habits, devotion to duty, etc.

Several cities report much good obtained from magazine clubs which make a study of the current educational literature.

Newark (N. J.) reports:

"Our Public Library is in close touch with every school in the city and supplies any needed material, prepares and classifies lists of books needed from time to time to carry out and elucidate the course of study. It also holds frequent school exhibits for the benefit of the teachers. It publishes from time to time valuable information, monographs, etc., for distribution among teachers."

TO SUMMARIZE

The work of making good teachers must be carried forward steadily because of the immaturity of teachers on entering the profession, the unevenness of their preparation, the singular lack of external stimulus connected with the practice of the profession, the complex nature of the work that must be intrusted to even the poorest teacher, the profound injury that results when the work is badly done, the constant change in methods and curriculum.

The making of good teachers is accomplished in two ways, by instruction on the part of the supervision, by personal study on the part of the teacher. Instruction and study may be concerned with information, with methods or with principles. The instruction which

comes through sympathetic supervision which suggests correct methods but does not impose particular ones, which points to principles underlying methods, which shows the application of principles to schoolroom practice, which arouses a love for excellence in work and in scholarship will ever be the most powerful of the agencies for good.

The instruction which comes from lectures, whether by great men or small, whether in ambitious lecture courses, in university extension courses or in ordinary institutes is of doubtful value. The hearer plays simply a passive, receptive, part; he listens to a brief summary of a more or less profound study of a given subject and knowing nothing of the background of the subject, this summary makes but little permanent impression. He goes away with a pleasing sensation of having learned something and the knowledge lasts but little longer than the sensation.

This training of teachers after they enter the work is deserving of much greater consideration than it has heretofore received. Many of the reports show an attitude of hopelessness regarding the mediocre teacher. To tolerate this attitude is to acknowledge defeat. It results in a cessation of effort to help on the part of the supervision and a placid self-satisfaction that tends toward mental death on the part of the teacher.

The school should be made the unit. The principal should be made responsible for the teaching of all subjects. The departmental plan makes this possible and provides for the teacher an incentive and an opportunity for scholarly preparation. There are undeveloped talents in every corps of teachers.

The principal must be acquainted with the work of the normal school and point out to young teachers the application of the principles of teaching, otherwise much of the work of the normal school will be lost. Normal extension classes have a similar office.

After wise supervision, the great essential for a teacher's life and growth is vigorous, systematic study. It is the duty of principal and superintendent to stimulate this study in every possible way. By example, by suggestion, by promotion, by increase of salary.

Promotion and increase of salary are the rights of the conscientious scholarly teacher and the expectation of these advantages

the greatest spur to the indolent. In the demonstration of this proposition lies the chief value of the present study. The various plans for attaining this result presented herein deserve the most careful consideration.

In small communities where the homes of teachers are near together, much may be done in study classes led by the superintendent or his assistants. As the city grows, the teachers in a given school or a given neighborhood may reside far apart from one another and the difficulty of gathering them together for systematic work increases. It thus becomes more and more important that contact with the supervision should come largely in school hours and that a teacher at other times should be left free to study when and where she can do so most conveniently. The amount of this study at any time need not, ought not be great, but it should be constant, thorough and ever advancing into widening fields.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. MINUTES OF MEETING HELD AT LOS ANGELES, JULY, 1907

Monday, July 8.—This session was called for 9:30 A. M., which proved too early an hour in N. E. A. convention week. A small number held an interesting round-table discussion at Symphony Hall, 232 South Hill St.

Several names were proposed for active membership, but owing to lack of data required by the by-law governing application and nomination for membership, the names were postponed for final action at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

Wednesday, July 10.—At 2:30 P. M. about 100 people gathered at Symphony Hall, though a small proportion of these were members of the Society. The discussions were all on some phases of the relation of the kindergarten to primary education, and were interesting and excellent in character.

Those who took leading parts in the discussion were Ossian H. Lang, editor of the *New York School Journal*; Miss Isabel Lawrence, State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.; Miss Emma C. Davis, supervisor primary education, Cleveland, Ohio; and Miss Barnard, kindergarten of Oakland, Cal.

It was forcibly brought out that there is great need of the kindergartners and the primary teachers coming to a better understanding with each other regarding the work each ought to do for the child and how that work should be done so that the child may get a maximum of benefit in the primary grades from his kindergarten life and training.

II. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

This will be made at the business meeting on Wednesday, February 26.

III. THE PURPOSES, ORGANIZATION, AND WORK OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

Origin.—The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education (formerly The National Herbart Society for the Scien-

tific Study of Education) was organized at the Denver meeting of the National Educational Association in 1895. It was one of several characteristic movements in the history of education in the United States during the last decade of the nineteenth century. It was born on the one hand of a serious and deep-felt need of advancing the status of the science and art of teaching, and on the other hand of the progressive energy and earnestness of a group of the younger American educators. These leaders are well represented by the members of the first executive committee which held office from 1895 to 1899. They were Charles DeGarmo, president; Nicholas Murray Butler, John Dewey, Wilbur S. Jackman, Elmer E. Brown, Frank M. McMurry, Levi Seeley, C. C. Van Liew; and Charles A. McMurry, secretary. In 1901 the society was organized under its present name with plans and purposes somewhat modified and extended.

Purposes.—During its first stage the National Society “was organized for the aggressive discussion and spread of educational doctrines.” It desired to draw into its membership all teachers, students of education, and citizens who wish to keep abreast of the best thought and practice in education. During the second stage the original purposes have been continued, but some distinctive characteristics have been added. The present purposes may be briefly stated as follows:

1. To work toward a sound philosophic and scientific basis for educational thought and practice.
2. In connection with “1” to secure a union of the motive and spirit of both scientist and artist in all the work of the teacher.
3. To carry on study and investigation of current educational problems in a truly scientific spirit and in accordance with principles of scientific method.
4. To secure thoughtful, stimulating, and aggressive discussion of studies brought before the Society in its *Yearbook*.
5. To publish in its *Yearbook* a body of valuable literature on topics of current and permanent interest in education, and to give from time to time the status of educational opinion and practice touching some special field or problem.
6. To emphasize the idea that problems arising from one’s immediate work are usually the best starting-points for a study of education.
7. To promote the spirit and secure the advantages of co-operative fellowship in the work of education.

Membership.—Any person who will actively work for the above purposes is eligible to active membership. Active members have all the privileges and share the responsibilities of conducting the work of the Society. Active membership fee is \$3 a year. Application for active membership may be made through any active member or officer of the Society.

Any person in sympathy with the above purposes, and who desires to keep in touch with the Society's work may become an associate member by paying \$1 a year. Associate members get the *Yearbook*, circulars of information, etc., free, and have the privilege of attending meetings of the Society. Anyone wishing the publications regularly will find it a convenience and an economy to enroll as an associate member.

It is a by-law of the Society that any member wishing to discontinue membership shall so notify the secretary.

All fees and dues are payable to the secretary at the beginning of each year.

Meetings.—Two meetings are held each year; one in February at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, the other in July in connection with the annual convention of the National Education Association.

Yearbooks.—The Society's *Yearbook* is issued in two parts, Part I being sent to members a few weeks before the February meeting, and Part II shortly before the meeting in July. The *Yearbooks* are sent out in advance of the meetings to enable members to study them in preparation for discussion; thus discussion of greater effectiveness and value is assured.

The *Yearbooks* of the Society constitute a body of educational literature of acknowledged worth. The most of this literature is of permanent value to teachers. Some of it is almost indispensable to libraries and students of education. The *Yearbooks* are now bound up in sets, each covering five years, and can be had for the cost of associate membership for period covered.

Present problems.—There are several studies now before the Society:

1. Prof. Ellwood P. Cubberley's able monograph on the certification of teachers is being followed up by the work of a strong com-

mittee to promote standards and better administration of certification of teachers in the United States.

2. The work of the committee on vocational studies for college entrance will be continued. The colleges and high schools now feel the need of establishing some standards and schedules of entrance-credit valuation for the various vocational courses in secondary schools.

3. The study of the relation of kindergarten and primary education will be supplemented. The further problem is to show rather specifically what there is or ought to be in kindergarten education that the primary teacher ought to utilize in the elementary school to the child's greatest advantage.

4. The forthcoming *Yearbook* will present a study from data of wide range and careful selection concerning the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of their teachers. This study will especially show conditions and how this problem is met in cities where progressive superintendents have been seriously at work to find satisfactory solution of the problem. This *Yearbook* will be discussed at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

5. The problem of secondary industrial education in the United States will be studied and presented in an early issue of the *Yearbook*. This phase of education has come to be looked upon as a national problem, both from the international outlook regarding the commercial merits of American products, and in the light of the great importance of progressive economic efficiency in the rank and file of our population.

Prospective program.—For some time the policy of the Society has been to deal with now one, now another of the most important and pressing current educational problems. There has been a growing feeling, however, that such an organization ought to define some fundamental and comprehensive problem that would give permanence and continuity to its work for several years. Such a line of work is here briefly outlined in a series of questions and theses as a basis for discussion:

1. What ideals of life (personal and institutional) in America are or ought to be national? This will call for a profound study of American life, historical and contemporary. There are or can

be supreme, inspiring, commanding ideals of American life in whose process of realization will be embodied and sublimated the higher value and meaning of America's vast natural resources and the creative energies of her people. These must be clearly defined and continuously propagated. In the light of these ideals the meaning and value of all the details of life and education must be estimated.

2. What should be the aim and fundamental characteristics in American education in order that these ideals may be most surely realized in the highest possible degree? This will call for the discovery, defining, and systematic organization of the philosophic and scientific bases of education. From such basic principles (all of which must be derived from the nature, needs, and ideals of the people, and the relation of the individual and society) will be determined the subject-matter and all details of the entire educative process.

3. In what respects and to what extent should American education conform to national standards rather than local, and vice versa? This calls for a clear understanding of the fact that the national total is teeming with individualistic tendencies with their specialized energies, and that these factors are the mainsprings of progress and the safeguards of freedom; but it also calls for an understanding of the importance of governing factors that secure co-operative unity, coherence, and justice.

There is perennial need of getting back to fundamentals in the work of education, and the educational compass must always be corrected by reference to the life-needs of the people—their legitimate necessities, their worthiest ideals, and their more abundant life.

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THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II
THE CO-ORDINATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
SUPPLEMENT TO SIXTH YEARBOOK, PART II

BY

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THE SUBJECT OF THE YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CLEVELAND
MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, JULY 1 AND 2

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PREFACE

Part II of the *Sixth Yearbook* was devoted to an investigation of the relation between the kindergarten and the elementary school. The subject was taken up with a desire to further the effort to establish the kindergarten more firmly as a part of the public-school system by bridging the chasm which lies between it and the primary grades.

The following papers comprise the *Yearbook*: "Introduction," Ada Van Stone Harris; "The Psychologic Basis of the Kindergarten," Edwin A. Kirkpatrick; "An Interpretation of Some of the Froebelian Kindergarten Principles," Maria Kraus-Boelte; "Some Conservative and Progressive Phases of Kindergarten Education," Patty Smith Hill; "The Evolution of the Kindergarten Program," Harriette Melissa Mills; "The History of Kindergarten Influence in Elementary Education," Nina C. Vandewalker.

With the exception of the articles by Miss Harris and Miss Vandewalker the papers deal almost exclusively with the kindergarten side of the question. They do not touch the practical problem of how to co-ordinate the work of the kindergarten and the school though they prepare the way for an intelligent discussion of that question.

The present *Yearbook* attacks the problem directly and along four distinct lines. Superintendent Gregory approaches it from the side of Froebelian educational principles and maintains that the solution lies in the application of these principles in both kindergarten and school.

Miss Bender shows that the educational material used in kindergarten and primary grades and the aims to be sought have so much in common that there is no practical difficulty in the way of co-ordinating the work of kindergarten and school.

Miss Payne undertakes to show how the right training of teachers may further the work of co-ordination; and finally Miss Glidden sets forth the relation of supervision to the question at issue.

It is ardently hoped that these two *Yearbooks* which are in spirit and treatment one may contribute to the unification of child's education by helping to bring about a better understanding and closer co-ordination between the kindergarten and the elementary school.

I

WAYS AND MEANS FOR SECURING ORGANIC CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

JENNY B. MERRILL, PD.D.

Supervisor Kindergartens, Manhattan and Bronx, New York City

Some years ago in preparing the New York City exhibit for the Paris Exposition, it was decided to prepare charts summarizing the course of study in the eight elementary grades.

As the kindergarten preceded these grades in the city system, the question arose whether it was possible to summarize its procedure in such a way as to show the organic continuity between the kindergarten and the grades, or whether it was better to omit the presentation of the kindergarten from the charts.

As supervisor of our public kindergartens, I was consulted in regard to the matter. I accepted the opportunity in order to show what I had long believed to be true, namely, that an outline kindergarten course can be presented under the same general headings that are used for the first-year primary, technical kindergarten terms being suppressed.

I fully appreciated the validity of certain objections that the kindergarten world might raise to such an expression of the kindergarten, for it is certainly dangerous to use "the counters of knowledge" in reference to young children. One cannot write the play spirit which is the soul of the kindergarten into an outline course. The final result as it appeared upon the charts sent to Paris, with a few recent modifications, is as follows:

NATURE INTERESTS

I. Observation of the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky, the clouds, rain and snow, the sunset, the rainbow, shadows indoors and out-of-doors, long and short days, the seasons, etc.

2. Care of living animals, as a cat, a kitten, a rabbit. Picture books of animals used daily. Sounds of animals imitated. Observing life in the aquarium.

3. Care of the caterpillar, its cocoon, the butterfly or moth, ants, flies, spiders, bees.

4. Planting flower and vegetable seeds in springtime; fall planting; watering plants.

5. Naming plants, flowers, fruits, grains, autumn leaves, dried grasses and grains used in decoration, pictures.

6. Sorting and arranging seeds, shells and pebbles.

7. Observing nests and other homes of animals. Learning names of natural objects in the cabinet, as acorns, cones, chestnut burrs, milkweed pods, mosses, etc. (See "Language.")

NOTE.—The children handle and play with these natural objects, learning their names, colors and uses; there is no formal study of them.

8. Walks and excursions if possible.

LANGUAGE

1. Stories and conversations relating to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, the life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc.

2. Memorizing choice songs; also rhymes and jingles.

3. Attempts at reproducing simple stories.

4. Practice in distinct enunciation; a few phonic elements compared with sounds made by animals.

5. Special effort to enlarge the vocabulary by learning the names of things seen and handled in the kindergarten.

NUMBER AND FORM

1. Counting children, blocks, splints, shells, acorns, edges, corners.

2. Measuring sticks from one to five inches; measuring edges of squares and cubes.

3. Naming combinations of numbers in eight by building with the third and fourth gifts, extended in the use of the fifth and sixth gift.

4. Naming and combining halves and quarters in building and in paper-folding.

5. Suggestion of twos, threes, fours in weaving.

NOTE.—All work in number and form merely incidental.

MUSIC

1. Listening to instrumental music.

2. Singing to children.

3. Memorizing simple songs.

4. Marching to music; also recognizing and responding in movements to various rhythms.
5. Practice in sense games in recognizing notes that are alike and unlike, high and low.

HANDWORK

1. Building with blocks.
2. Modeling in sand and clay.
3. Designing and outlining with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds. (Limited.)
4. Drawing. Illustrative and object. Daily practice on the blackboard.
5. Painting. Flat washes of a single color, painting mainly natural objects having bright colors.
6. Weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats; paper mats and fringes (not less than one-half inch in width); free weaving with grasses or raffia.
7. Sewing with or without a needle. (Limited.)
8. Paper-folding. Simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles.
9. Paper-cutting and Mounting. (a) Free and illustrative; (b) Cutting to crease and line.
10. Construction of simple objects of interest to children as toys.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

1. Marching, skipping, running and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music.
2. Gymnastic exercises, imitating (a) familiar movements seen in the home and in the street; (b) movements of workmen; (c) movements of animals.
3. Finger plays.
4. Ball games, rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching.
5. Games for training the senses.
6. Games in a ring: (a) Trade games; (b) nature games; (c) social games; (d) impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs. (May be classified also under "Moral Training.")
7. Free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, dolls.

MORAL TRAINING

1. Appropriate conversations, pictures, stories and songs.
2. Punctuality and cleanliness enforced; care of room.
3. Acts of politeness and kindness encouraged and frequently suggested.
4. Instrumental music used to arouse and to quiet.

5. Care of animals and plants.
6. Observation of holidays and birthdays (especially children's and parents' birthdays).
7. Interest in the school, the flag on the school and in the kindergarten room, the streets, parks and monuments of the city, leading to simple thoughts and songs of our country.
8. Sympathy—pleasant tones of voice.
9. Consultation with parents.¹

In 1905 the Board of Superintendents adopted the following kindergarten syllabus, which presents in varied form the foregoing course with a few suggestions in method.

THE KINDERGARTEN

The following are the lines of work that should be included in kindergarten instruction:

Nature-Study.—In nature-study, the children should observe and care for animals and plant life, and should make daily observations of natural phenomena. The teacher should take the children on excursions to the parks and fields, and should encourage them to work in out-of-door gardens.

Language.—Stories and conversations in the kindergarten should relate to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc. In story telling, the stories should be illustrated with blackboard sketches, pictures, and objects. The stories should be reproduced concretely through the medium of games and adaptable material; later, as an introduction to language, the stories should be reproduced orally with great freedom of expression. A special effort should be made to enlarge the vocabulary by teaching the names of all objects seen and handled in the kindergarten. A few rhymes and jingles should be memorized.

Songs.—In music, the children should be taught to listen appreciatively to instrumental music and to singing. In singing by the children, only such songs should be selected as unite expressive melody to appropriate words, and those in which the rhythm of poetry and music coincide. The voice compass should extend from E first line to E fourth space of the staff. Only soft singing should be allowed at any time, and great care should be given to enunciation and expression. Singing during marches and physical exercise is not advisable.

Games.—In physical training, the play and games should be interpretive and expressive of everyday life. They should lead to a control of the muscles, and to mental and social development. They should include marching,

¹ See *Kindergarten Review*, June, 1905, p. 630.

skipping, running, and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music; gymnastic exercises, in which the children imitate familiar movements seen in the home and in the street, movements of workmen, and movements of animals; finger plays; ball games, as rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching; games for training the senses; games in a ring, as trade games, nature games, social games, impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs; free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, and dolls.

Handwork.—The handwork is suggested by the kindergarten "Gifts and Occupations." It includes building with blocks (Gifts II to VI); designing and outlining common objects with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds; modeling in sand and clay; drawing, both illustrative and objective, with heavy crayons; daily practice on blackboard; painting both illustrative and object; (see paragraph on "Nature-Study" and on "Stories" for suggestions of pictorial subjects in drawing, painting, and modeling); weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats and in paper mats with fringes of inch and half-inch widths; occasional free weaving with grasses or raffia; sewing with or without a needle; paper folding of simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles; paper cutting and mounting, the cutting to be free and illustrative, or restricted to the crease and line; construction of simple objects by combining paper-folding with cutting and pasting.

No occupation work should be introduced which is injurious to the eye, such as fine perforating, fine sewing, and fine weaving. The work with the gifts and occupations should be partly directed and imitative and partly inventive.

Relation to the Primary Grades.—In order to co-ordinate the kindergarten and the primary grades the kindergarten exercises should be modified toward the close of the term in preparation for promotion. There should be periods of silent work and a greater proportion of independent work in the advanced group. The close connection between the kindergarten and the first year of school work is indicated by the topics under which the kindergarten occupations are classified in this syllabus.

It will be observed that the subjects in which the continuity of work is most apparent are: "Language," "Nature-Study," "Music," "Drawing," and the "Manual Arts."

1. *Oral language.*—In oral language there is a natural progress from the kindergarten through the grades. The story and the conversation are the great features which should be common to both.

The kindergarten recognizes the child as a talking being. He is not told from the moment of his first arrival that he "must not

speak," as has been and still is, the custom in some primary schools. Oral expression is the child's right and is generally regarded in the kindergarten. The young child cannot learn to think without much talking. He must learn to inhibit speech gradually.

The child's vocabulary is constantly enriched in the kindergarten by naming every new object he uses, and by memorizing songs connected with many plays. Recently the nursery rhymes have become very popular in the kindergarten as they are also in the first year of the elementary school. The oral productions of stories and close attention to phonics belong to the primary rather than the kindergarten age. The kindergarten child, however, plays with phonics in imitating the sounds of animals.

The language of the kindergarten child is also improved by giving him an opportunity to talk about what he has made, whether it be a building with blocks, a drawing, or any other piece of hand-work. While the object is present, and immediately after the close attention required in making it has been relieved, there is a natural outburst of expression from many children, while others, it is true, say nothing. To the latter the kindergartner should turn, asking a few simple questions about the completed piece of work.

The gradually acquired ability to inhibit speech has not been sufficiently considered by the kindergartner and primary teacher. Perhaps there is no other point of discipline in which the kindergarten child more frequently annoys the primary teacher. Doubtless there should be periods in the kindergarten in which the children understand that it is better not to talk. The children learn to listen quietly to the telling of a story. They should not talk while marching, exercising, changing rooms, waiting for material, resting, or while clothing is being distributed. They may be made to feel a real interest in these quiet times. Interruptions and explosions of speech are not to be punished in the kindergarten, but with judicious management and correction on the part of the kindergartner they always grow less and less. Toward the close of the term, our little ones enjoy "playing school" as the syllabus suggests, for a few days before promotion, or trying to be more quiet like the big children.

If over-talkativeness is met by both the kindergartner and primary teacher in this spirit of mutual helpfulness, it will soon disappear.

At the same time freedom to speak out should not wholly vanish, even in the upper grades. With very young children the vigor of the thought is often lost in the effort to hold back speech, if it is not entirely forgotten before permission is given for expression. Think what our own expression would amount to if we were compelled to wait on every and all occasions for permission to speak.

The kindergarten has done more for the primary child than is sometimes realized, by enlarging the vocabulary, especially in nouns and verbs, and by securing a natural tone which can only come through freedom of speech. Pestalozzi says in *Leonard and Gertrude*, "The child must speak well before he can read well." Thus we find that reading, in a sense, is begun in the kindergarten, although no written symbols are taught.

The interest in stories, in songs, and in pictures also paves the way for interest in the book, and the kindergartner sends the child forward anxious to learn to read if she has done her work well.

2. *Nature-study*.—The nature interests of the child, as expressed in our kindergarten syllabus, are identical with those of the first-year primary. Guided observations of the returning seasons, during the first primary year, will naturally be more effective than in the kindergarten, for the primary teacher has the previous work of the kindergarten as an apperceptive background. There may be a little more system, a little more naming of parts in the primary, although in the main general observation of the life and habits of animals and plants, rather than any detailed analysis, should continue later than the kindergarten age.

As in reading a book a second time, we get from it ideas which we did not get in the first reading, so the study of the yearly cycle of seasons and holidays made in the primary year is a distinct advance beyond the work done in the kindergarten although the same nature topics are continued.

In the city kindergartens, where opportunities for observation are very limited, kindergarten children learn to recognize in pictures, if not by real contact, twenty-five or thirty animals and possibly ten or more flowers and leaf forms. Every child plants at least one seed and is encouraged to watch the results. He plays with seeds and leaves and by sorting them, becomes familiar with differences in size, shape, and color. He names many common

vegetables and fruits, and probably draws and colors them in painting lessons.

The kindergarten child further becomes acquainted with sand and shells, with clay and soil, through playful activities in modeling, and reaches the primary grades better prepared by all these experiences to listen to nature stories, having gained the power to image as he could not before the kindergarten had enriched his life.

3. *Music*.—The rote song is the common feature of interest in both kindergarten and primary. The kindergarten usually has an advantage over the primary grades in possessing a piano, and if it is well used the ability to listen to music with a little more intelligence is acquired. The ear being trained the primary teacher can secure better results. She may also criticize a little more in detail than the kindergartner and insist upon "good tone quality, distinct enunciation with well-opened mouths and mobile lips." All this will prepare the way for "simple, melodic exercises in tone relationship by imitation and dictation" in the latter half of the first year.

The rhythmic work in the kindergarten also relates itself most naturally to the musical exercises and also to the simple dance steps, now so popular in the advanced grades in connection with physical training.

4. *Drawing and the manual arts*.—For many years there was a distinct gap between the kindergarten and the primary along these lines. The geometric basis of the kindergarten was so marked in all its occupations that there could be no unity effected in schools in which an able art teacher was doing good work in the primary grades. Now that many kindergartners have rejected this geometric basis, relegating it as the art department does to a later period of development, there is a steady progress from the kindergarten to the primary in all handwork. Indeed in no other department is progressive continuity more fully experienced than between the kindergarten and the art department.

In the recently issued *Kindergarten Manual* of the City of Cincinnati, occurs the following paragraph on drawing:

Drawing is to be given five to seven minutes daily in connection with any period that may seem wise. It is under the supervision of Mr. William H. Vogel, who will from time to time outline the work with the kindergartners. In general it should be of such a nature as to afford the child the means of

giving graphic expression to the thoughts and impressions received in his daily experiences. Much work at the blackboard is desirable, and all table work should be done on a large scale.

In like manner, I have been aided for the past ten years by our supervisor of drawing, Dr. James P. Haney, in relating the kindergarten drawing to the primary. The development in drawing has in this way become continuous from kindergarten through the grades.

In the kindergarten, as in the first year, drawing and cutting are mainly illustrative and are used as a means of expression. Professor O'Shea says: "Before the child enters school he has used drawing as a means of conveying his thoughts to others, and his interest in it is determined wholly by the use to which he is thus able to put it." We are then carrying this interest in graphic expression forward from the home through the kindergarten and into the school. I often wonder why kindergartners have not been guided more fully by Froebel's commentary on "The Little Artist," which sets forth this phase of drawing in such an ideal fashion:

The things a child can make,
May crude and worthless be,
It is his impulse to create
Should gladden thee.

"Drawing," says Froebel, "attests the mind's creative power and offers a seemingly simple form for its exertion."

In the kindergarten it has been our rule, as in Cincinnati, to have drawing every day, and no occupation is more heartily enjoyed nor does any furnish a surer test of progress on the part of the kindergarten child.

Let me quote from the *Third Yearbook* of the supervisors of manual arts an article by Miss Julia Cremmins:

As a means of instruction, illustrative drawing has an educational and social value. It helps the child to think creatively instead of receptively. By it the habit of mental imagery is formed. It stimulates thought by opening an additional channel for thought. It promotes the power of connected thinking. It serves as an evidence that an image has been clearly defined before the mental eye: Such drawing creates interest in social surroundings. In illustrating personal experiences the child soon realizes how imperfect are his pictures of the things that happen daily. In an endeavor to gain clearer impressions he forms a habit of close observation.

Free cutting is an occupation closely allied to illustrative drawing. In fact we have learned by experience to introduce it by allowing the children to cut out their own drawings. This seems to give them courage to cut into the paper, and they secure satisfactory results sooner.

The occupation of folding is common to both the kindergarten and primary. It is one of the occupations which the primary has accepted from the kindergarten. The course in paper folding in kindergarten training schools has always been an extensive one and it is well that much of the work has passed on into the primary.

Constructive work in paper is also common to both the kindergarten and primary grades, and may be introduced after the children have acquired a little power in cutting, folding, and pasting. The kindergarten occupations have heretofore been limited too much to flat work. The child prefers the use of three dimensions. Constructive work in stiff paper is not difficult for children of kindergarten age. It precedes similar work in cardboard and less pliable material.

The use of building blocks and modeling in sand and in clay also meets the need of working in three dimensions. The ability to interpret pictures can be increased by artistic representations in the sand table. One of our kindergartners, Miss Rose Archer, has systematically worked out the cycle of the year in artistic scenes, following them with blackboard sketches which illustrate the same subjects. Such work in the kindergarten lays the best possible foundation for the work in elementary geography and thus tends to "organic continuity."

To represent properly such scenes, toy houses, animals, and figures (in proportion) are essential. The introduction of toys in the kindergarten is considered by some kindergartners as an innovation, but the children are often aroused to play more intelligently with kindergarten material by the addition of a few toys.

Some kindergartners are using toys to incite the children to build with a definite purpose, as, for example, a child may be given a toy animal, and the suggestion made to build a stable or barn, or other appropriate shelter. Toys have their place also in the primary class as they furnish some of its best models for object drawing and construction.

Having discarded the sequence of the gifts, many kindergartners are even blending the kindergarten materials to advantage. Thus splints and tablets may be used occasionally with blocks. For example, a stove having been built with the blocks of the fifth gift, circular tablets may be placed upon it to represent stove lids. They may also be used as toy dishes. Splints may be used for tracks, or for the span and approaches of a bridge. Seeds and colored beads may be used for vegetables and fruits, on a stand built of blocks. All the various boxes for building gifts may be combined as the child needs them.

The occupations of sewing and weaving which have been developed very fully in the primary grades are being used less and less in the kindergarten. It is true that children generally delight in these occupations, even in the kindergarten, but as the physicians are continually warning us against them on account of injury to the eyesight, we are crowding them out, and yielding them to the domestic art department.

Instead of the geometric sequence of gifts and occupations, as commonly recited in kindergarten terms, we consider all the plastic materials of the kindergarten simply as a means of expression, and believe that the children will gain knowledge of form, color, number, position, and quality incidentally through use. In this way the kindergarten is gradually allying itself to the approved methods of the primary schools, in which less and less work is required in form and number in the first school year.

5. *Games*.—The introduction of games into the primary school as a means of physical training, is one of the recent and most valuable means of securing organic continuity between the kindergarten and school. At present there is more or less interchange of games between the kindergarten and first year, but it must finally be recognized that simple plays and those avoiding competition are best suited to kindergarten children.

The kindergarten child needs to express himself through his body in dramatic play, more than do the older children, who gradually acquire a love for more formal, organized games. It is, however, also true that the dramatic instinct is also being utilized throughout the grades, although not in games, but rather in the connection with reading, history, and literature.

Group work which has become more and more popular in the school has always found its place in the kindergarten. The ages of children usually differ more widely in the kindergarten than in the well-graded class and hence the kindergarten has lent itself naturally to the grouping of children. Group work has, however, often been neglected in the kindergarten. There has been of recent years a revival of working in groups in the kindergarten as well as in the primary school. In both kindergarten and school this method should be encouraged as it helps in developing individual initiative and assists the teacher in knowing the child.

The kindergarten has always stood for a close connection with home interests. It has accomplished much by means of visitation and mothers' meetings. While it is possibly true that this work is most essential at the beginning of school life, still it is pleasing to note that the "parent-teacher associations" are extending upward through the school.

The desire to secure organic continuity between kindergarten and the school in matters of discipline must not lead to an undue forcing of the kindergarten child into school habits.

Dr. Hall warns us that "a school system which intensifies rather than shelters the young is a forcing machine and a perversion of the purpose and etymology of the word school."

When all teachers recognize that "the field of play is as wide as life and its varieties far outnumber those of industries and occupations," when, I say, all teachers subscribe to this doctrine, then kindergartners will not be obliged to guard so jealously as they have in the past, the right to play.

It is this determination of the kindergarten to play freely and fully that has most often made it clash with school discipline. But the widening of the belief in the educational value of play will tend to prevent misunderstandings in the future.

As a summary of ways and means to secure continuity between the kindergarten and school I suggest the following kindergarten creed:

A KINDERGARTEN CREED

I believe that children need each other's society for their highest development.

I believe that from four to six or seven years of age it is usually best for boys and girls to play together in groups for two or three hours daily, under adult guidance, away from their homes, in kindergartens.

I believe that play is the natural means of developing the child's body and mind.

I believe that play may be so conducted as to lead gradually into the more restricted life of the school. I also believe that the social and communal interests of the kindergarten period should extend upward into the school.

I believe that the physical care of the child demands especial attention up to the seventh year, and hence, I believe that it is a question whether young children should be called together unless they are provided with light, airy, and sunny rooms.

I believe that every possible effort should be made to keep children in touch with nature and natural objects.

I believe that simple garden work and the care of animals should be especially encouraged.

I believe that the best materials for play in the kindergarten are indicated by Froebel.

I believe that the most important of these are balls, building blocks, sand, clay, paper, crayon or brush, and scissors.

I believe that constructive play with these or other plastic materials should follow naturally a few simple industries and that such play should develop gradually into work.

I believe that informal acting or playful dramatizing should precede the formal games of the kindergarten.

I believe that pictures, stories and songs should be used freely at this age. They have long been recognized as potent in child training. If well selected they will carry the child beyond his environment and help him in forming ideals.

I believe periods for free or undirected play essential in the kindergarten, not only for the child but also for the kindergartner, to aid her in studying the children. I believe that home playthings, as the doll, the doll-house, a few simple toys, and picture books, are desirable in the kindergarten as incentives to play and to social life.

I believe that the child needs the child, and that the social life of the kindergarten is one of its most valuable features; that the communal life at this age enlarges human relationships at a time when the child needs to find his "social level," and provides a better atmosphere for moral training than the home alone can provide.

I believe that during this early period by all the means that have been mentioned, the child is gathering "experience-knowledge" of his environment and of his fellows, which will prove the best possible basis for school life and for all future development.

II

THE NECESSITY OF CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. THE PRESENT STATUS ILLOGICAL AND UNFROEBELIAN

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In passing from the kindergarten to the primary school there is a break. Do what you will to soften the change, to modify the break, it still remains a break. Three general methods of dealing with the difficulty have been employed: (1) To provide a connecting class to take the child out of his kindergarten habits and introduce him to those of the primary school; in the words of some teachers, "To make him over." (2) To modify the kindergarten to make it more nearly resemble the primary school. (3) To modify the primary school to make it more nearly resemble the kindergarten. To these might be added a fourth: To do a little of each.

Now if anything is clear in the Froebelian doctrine it is this, that there are no breaks in human development and should be none in education. The human being shows wide variations when we compare him with himself at different periods of his life, but these changes always take place gradually. This is Froebel's language: "Sharp limits and definite subdivisions within the continuous series of the years of development, withdrawing from attention the permanent continuity, the living connection, the inner living essence, are therefore highly pernicious, and even destructive in their influence." And the truth is not only Froebelian, it is self-evident, it is common-sense.

It seems to the writer, therefore, that the fact of the break just noted is not only un-Froebelian, it is unpsychological, it is not common-sense. It indicates that we have abandoned the simple principles of Froebel, of psychology even, and have intruded ourselves into the problem. We have introduced an artificial consideration

somewhere or we should not have this glaring absurdity staring us in the face in our school system.

For, let us note. We are not to "make the child over;" that is precisely what we must not do. In succeeding in making the child over we do him an injury even if he were all wrong before, for Nature doesn't make things right in that way. The suspicion might arise in such cases whether it is not the teacher who needs to be made over.

And let us note further, in view of this thought of continuous development that the primary school is not to approximate the kindergarten. Who had a right to make the kindergarten a standard? It would be a standard, by the way, exceedingly hard to define in the divergent practical aspects it now presents to the educational world. And still further, it is equally illogical to speak of approximating the kindergarten to the primary school.

There is no kindergarten, there is no primary school in any such sense as the terms are understood in such a discussion. There is but one fact that is real and that is development. The artificial terms which we apply to distinguish various stages of progress in this development should not denote different things but different phases of the same thing. But the terms kindergarten and primary school imply a sharp distinction, a sharper distinction indeed, than that between the first and second grades of the primary school. This is not the only place in the school course where a sharp dividing line is drawn as a result of the use of terms, where no such line should be. A striking example is to be found in the attitude of high-school teachers toward grammar-school boys on their entrance into the high school. The friction that suddenly develops at this point and the failure of the entering students both as regards discipline and scholarship, are well-known to teachers. The explanation is simple. The student hasn't changed his identity in entering the high-school, but the high-school teacher thinks he has just because he has given him a new name.

Let us start then with this proposition, that to standardize an artificial thing as a basis of comparison with another artificial thing is unpedagogical and illogical. This postulate having been grasped, the logical course becomes very clear and simple. The standard for all education, by whatever artificial designation we describe any of

its phases, is the immutable law of child development. The kindergarten is logically but an expression of this law for one period of school life and the primary school, grammar school, high school, and college, expressions for other periods. We have claimed far too little for the Froebelian doctrine when we have timidly advocated its application to the primary school. It is not only applicable to the whole of education, it is its inexorable law. In the following discussion, no attempt, therefore, will be made to confine Froebelian thought to primary education.

Let us assume that the law of child development is conveyed with reasonable adequacy in the Froebel philosophy. This assumption is near enough to the truth—indeed it is wonderfully near the truth. What are the lessons to be derived concerning the conduct of the kindergarten and the subsequent education of the child?

Let us consider first the post-kindergarten period, the period of the so-called grades. In articles on this subject in previous *Yearbooks*, a most optimistic state of mind is evident. The influence of the kindergarten on the primary school has been taken for granted, and the spirit of the primary school has been shown to have changed for the better and along the lines of Froebelian thought. Besides this, the kindergarten material has entered the primary schools. The writer is far from entering into full participation with this optimism. One may gratefully and gladly concede that such a change in spirit is evident but must repress his transports when he begins to realize to how limited an extent the change has taken place. The superintendent who longs for the Froebel millennium must sadly admit that many a primary teacher has received but little of the divine fire, and that in the cases of many more, the new spirit is at best a modifying influence and by no means a dominating influence. In the grammar schools, the picture is darker, and in the high school, almost illegible. Again, and this is the important consideration, the influence which has brought about the happier condition is, so far as the teacher is concerned, not consciously that of the kindergarten. It may be, and to some extent, doubtless is, indirectly that of the kindergarten, but the teacher who is affected by it, doesn't know it. This is the same as to say that the vitalizing Froebelian thought which has done so much for the kindergartner has done little for the primary teacher

and that little in a roundabout way. The real thing is clearly seen when the kindergarten trained girl enters the primary or grammar school. No greater blessing has come to the schools in these later years than the entrance of the kindergarten-trained teacher into the grades. But often, even she sees but dimly the beauty of the gospel she has learned, except as it is revealed in orthodox kindergarten lines of expression. Nevertheless, the possibilities of such young women under a sympathetic training are most hopeful. They make our best primary teachers. It is a question, however, whether the introduction of the kindergarten material into the primary schools has not been productive of as much harm as good. These materials have no value in themselves. They receive a value in the kindergarten because they furnish a medium for the expression of a Froebelian thought. But to the primary teacher, they have no such value, and to the kindergartner acting as a primary teacher, they are likely to lose their meaning when divorced from their standard use. Such materials have become the occasion of a frightful waste of time, as all the materials must that are used without a comprehension of their meaning. In many cases they are relegated to the time allotted to the out-and-out idling known as "busy work."

It can never be said that the principles of Froebel are acting on the school until they act directly on the teacher. And it must further be kept in mind that the kindergarten materials and the kindergarten methods have nothing whatever to do with the matter. The methods and materials will be determined by the facts of the case. It by no means follows that because the blocks and tablets and zephyr furnish an adequate means of expressing a Froebelian principle at the sub-primary or so called kindergarten age, the same material is its adequate expression in the fourth or seventh grade. The method and the material vary, the material may even disappear, but the Froebelian principle is evermore regnant. The logical mode of procedure would seem to be: given a principle, what is the proper method or medium for its expression at this or that point in the child's progress? Let us look at some of the violations of such an obvious principle. Their grossness, importance, and frequency are startling.

One of Froebel's precepts to which we all ought to give heed is in substance, that all education should be "following," not "prescrip-

tive." It is a fair inference from this law that all methods should be based upon data afforded by the children themselves. It would seem that when children in large numbers, here, there, everywhere, resist a subject or method, that that subject or method is wrong at that stage of progress. And, conversely, when the children receive a subject or phase of a subject gladly, that that subject or phase of the subject is clearly indicated as right. Indeed, one might deduce a law regarding the appropriateness of subjects, or the time or method of their introduction, to be known as the law of the least resistance. Now what are the facts?

How long did it take us to learn that arithmetic has no place in the earlier grades? For years and years the children had said so. They resisted the subject, learned it with the greatest difficulty, and forgot it with the greatest facility; their acquirements were insignificant, and if the subject was omitted in the first grade the children were as far along at the beginning of the third grade as if the subject had been taken for two years. From a Froebelian point of view this amounts to proof, and the educational world is gradually accepting the only possible conclusion. Why were we so slow? Merely because we evolved the appropriateness of arithmetic from our heads and not from the facts of childhood. The latter is the Froebelian method, and in the Froebelian structure the principle on which it rests is basal.

Conversely, why have we been so slow in learning that little children are the best language students in the world, that early childhood is the golden time for language? And specifically, how slow we are in learning that the child's speech is oral speech and that written speech is an exotic! In oral speech the child is fluent and idiomatic, and reveals himself. In written speech he is artificial and clumsy and does not reveal himself. He comes to school with plenty of language; we put a pencil in his hand and freeze him up. The written speech will develop, but not yet, and very slowly. But we don't derive our courses of study from children but from our own self-consciousness. It would seem that to many superintendents, in preparing courses of study, it has never occurred that there are children in the world who could be seen if it were thought that that were really necessary.

What but a perverse or ignorant disregard of Froebel's law, a

disregard of the richest field of data, the children themselves, will explain the vagaries of nature-study? Anyone who will read the curricula on this subject for the last twenty years will come to the conclusion that for the most part the facts of childhood, children's loves and tendencies, were the last thing thought of. Slowly, we are tending in the right direction, but not from any consciousness that the children must determine the course of study, which is the Froebelian law. To give an example and, at the same time, be specific, the love of children for living things has been ignored or catered to accidentally in the primary and lower grammar grades, and is now very slowly receiving consideration.

And finally, for these illustrations might stretch on indefinitely, we offer an illustration of a detail which may stand for a great many details. Why do teachers try to teach the rationale of carrying in subtraction to very young children? A very little knowledge of childhood would show that the average child has not the faculties for its comprehension. He at last, indeed, arrives at a parrot-like understanding of the process and that understanding remains perfunctory. The explanation and drill thereon take many days, and the child doesn't subtract a bit better for knowing the reason. He takes the process readily but resists the explanation. This is not wonderful. Children must do many things for which an explanation is impossible. What about learning to walk, for example?

We have considered but one Froebelian law. But let anyone apply just this one law to our schools and trace the long line of violations in courses of study, in the time at which subjects are presented and the special method of presentation. One need not stop at the primary school. He may pursue his investigation through the grammar school and the high school. Indeed he will find the high school a very Golconda of false methods from the point of view under consideration. Suppose we were to open our eyes to the facts of boyhood and girlhood and humbly be guided by them, and base our teaching and courses of study upon them. A genuine revival in teaching would come to pass. Without trying to approximate the kindergarten we would be obeying Froebel. And what more can the kindergarten do?

In further illustration of this broad treatment of the elementary

school from a Froebelian point of view, let us think of another Froebelian law—that of self-activity. In the usual discussions of this law we seem to be unable to see in it anything else than manual training. But its application throughout the course of study is universal and its violations are so numerous and disastrous as to suggest the suspicion that the principle enters to the most trifling extent into school administration. An example or two must suffice.

Let the following test be applied by any teacher: Hand a set of compositions back to a class without indicating the errors and demand that the errors be not only corrected but discovered, and that the compositions be rewritten. Continue to hand back the same compositions indefinitely until all errors are discovered by the writers, and a composition, perfect in view of the state of the child's progress, is evolved. Persevere in this treatment one year. The following phenomenon will then be revealed: whereas the pupils at the beginning could not produce a perfect composition without many efforts, at the end of the year they offer the desired product as a rule with one or two efforts. The same course of treatment applied to arithmetic, algebra, German, Latin, or anything else, will reveal the same phenomenon. The pupil reaches the upper grades of the grammar school and the high school, it is claimed, weak in the technique of writing, and feeble as regards thought. In passing, why should his thought not be feeble? So much mental effort must be expended on form that he has none left for thought. If technique could ever become automatic, his whole effort could go out to the thought. But technique becomes automatic under present conditions very slowly, and never reaches any high standard, unless, indeed, it becomes automatically wrong. That is a result that can be attained with surprising rapidity.

The explanation is very simple. The self-activity of the child in the process summarized above is, at the beginning, of the most modest kind. The fact that he goes on day after day doing things that he knows are wrong, indicates how little real effort he is putting forth. But why not demand the full quota of his self-activity, as indicated above! Why shouldn't the child be feeble? Why shouldn't the results be inconsequential? The teacher assists when there should be no assistance, he explains when there should

be no explanation. He interferes with the child's right to do things himself, he meddles, and this he does all the time and in a systematic manner as if with a settled theory as to its propriety. When the malign theory is persisted in year after year, the tendency is to necrosis of the will. Some high schools make one think that this disease has actually set in.

The law holds equally good in oral language. The pupil has a right that no one shall tell him his mistakes unless he doesn't know that they are mistakes. Every time a teacher shows a child his error in anything, she violates the law of self-activity and retards his education. And the law holds good in the learning of things as well as in their practice or drill. No teacher has a right to help a boy to understand an application of percentage which he can understand without help. It is a wrong done to the boy. He is defrauded of the right to exert his own powers, through which exertion alone, in Froebel's opinion, he can be educated. It is surprising even among the very little children, the first-grade children, how much they may do for themselves. We teach them reading, of course, but if in addition to the formal teaching we give the child unlimited facilities for interesting and appropriate silent reading, put him in a bath, so to speak, of silent reading, he will soon demonstrate how unnecessary is much of our teaching and if unnecessary, then of course, how injurious. The formal teaching will go on, but it will rapidly change its character, for the children have become partners in the business. But this lesson is learned by but few teachers. The formal reading lesson appears in the upper grades as a method of teaching reading. Indeed we are for ever teaching reading. We seem never to be able to say we have taught it. The teaching of the trick of reading from the printed page should have been taught long ago. The oral reading lesson has its function in the upper grades, but that function is not to teach children how to read.

There is but one remedy for the widespread evil which we are now considering and that is the Froebelian remedy. The child must be forced back upon himself. He must have just as much help as is necessary to place him in a position to help himself and no more. This amount varies with the child, but its limit is in any case a sacred limit over which we pass at our peril. The teacher must more and more withdraw himself. He must stop meddling.

There is no educational discipline but self-discipline and in its final resolution there is no education but self-education.

The application of this idea to moral education opens up a fascinating field of thought but we can only hint at it here. Briefly, if by discipline we make it impossible to do wrong, we at the same time make choice impossible. Activity implies resistance. If there is no possibility of resistance (that is, if it is impossible to do wrong) there is no exercise, and if there is no exercise there is no growth.

Here again, the widest field for the thought is opened up. Eliminate the violations of the law of self-activity and the public schools would not know themselves. But then we would be doing only what every true kindergartner proposes to herself. The child leaves the kindergarten where self-activity is always predicated of him. He enters the grades where self-activity is, to a very large extent, an unknown quantity, and is likely to be accidental when it enters.

The limits of this article will permit but one more development of the main thought, the broader treatment of the public school from the Froebelian standpoint. We call attention to the beautiful thought of Froebel to which the keyword is the adjective "conscious." In its broader treatment it means that the child is to be made conscious of his divine possibilities. Not only must we know his power but he must know it. Unless he is conscious of his power there is no adequate education. A child can't develop what he doesn't know he possesses. But too frequently it is not power that is emphasized but failure. In the marking of a language paper, for example, is the emphasis not placed on the errors? But why not also on the successes? Which will stimulate a boy the most, to know that he can do a thing or to know that he can't? Do we like to do things we succeed in doing or those we fail in doing? Is the perpetual emphasis on error likely to make a boy so believe in himself that he will resolve to conquer all obstacles? In morals the truth shines clearly. If a child resists a dozen temptations to do wrong and fails at the thirteenth, we punish him for that failure. There's where the emphasis is placed. His successful efforts to resist temptation go for nothing. But there is where the emphasis belongs, according to Froebel. With us his failure is all that counts. Surely my duty is to make him conscious of his power

when he succeeds. He will try the harder next time. This does not eliminate punishment, but it eliminates most of the conditions which make punishment necessary. So in the curriculum. The earnest, honest effort is the important fact, for herein lies the consciousness of power; the error is the subordinate matter. The subject is a fascinating one. It is a subject which teachers have studied only in its elements. That the principle involved dominates our educational practice is far from the truth. When it does, not only will our methods of teaching be revised but our marking systems will not compare child with child, for the premium will be based on the only possible comparison, that of the child with himself. In that happy day our merit lists will not exalt one child and humiliate another, and the "*cum laude*" on the high-school commencement program will disappear with all other ingenious contrivances for emphasizing partial defeat. We will then learn that all methods which make a child believe that he can't are vicious.

One specific illustration of this great law of self-revelation, but in another field from the foregoing, must suffice for this part of the discussion. There is an interesting statement in Froebel's discussion of the teaching of language, to the effect that through reading man attains personality. The substance of the discussion is that through reading the soul is raised into self-consciousness. But who can watch a reading lesson in many a primary grade and believe that through it the child's soul is attaining self-consciousness? The monotonous expression, the apathetic looks of the children, the fitful attention and feeble interest, all indicate what is being attained: a slowly developing power to translate characters in the book into speech. But the vital fact of reading as an art whereby the child discovers himself, is practically, if not absolutely, absent. The teacher looks for it in a hopeless way or not at all. The child must discover his personality, not through words or even through the meanings of words, but through the thought of the story. Therefore the story is the principal aim of the teaching, the trick of reading the subordinate aim, for the former is the reason for desiring the latter. And there is many a teacher who would stare if she were advised to tell or read the story frequently before developing the words.

And this perfunctory treatment of reading in the earlier

grades is continued in the later grades in a most absurd manner and is paralleled in the other subjects of the course. The Froebelian idea is that the study is of value, not in itself, but in view of its reaction on the divine essence. But much of the teaching that we see places the emphasis on the subject in innocent oblivion of the existence of any such thing as a reaction. How else is the dominance of the fetish known as arithmetic to be explained? Here matters are frequently taught, not because of their reaction or even in view of their subsequent usefulness, but just because they have always been taught. For example, the teacher spends considerable time in teaching, drilling, and reviewing a subject known as "Least Common Multiple," with the full knowledge that she has never used the process in her life, except to teach it, and that the pupil never will either. It is merely a matter of tradition.

Here we are face to face with the great parting of ways. Froebel says the fundamental consideration is the child, his personality. All else is to be considered in view of its reaction on this divine entity. The opposing view holds: There are subjects to be taught. The child is a convenient thing to teach them to. You can't teach geography without children. Therefore we must have children in the schools, but the geography is the important fact and the child must accommodate himself to it. Included between these two extreme views range the teachers of the country, the mass practically adhering to the un-Froebelian view. Once more, let us search our practice. Let us bow to the Froebelian law of self-revelation. Let us make the child the starting-point for our courses of study and our methods. When we do that our schools will be revolutionized and the Froebelian thought will be incarnated in our children.

It was necessary to deal thus frankly with the post-kindergarten section of our school system. It was necessary to show that the Froebelian doctrine, not the kindergarten, was the standard. It was necessary to show, also, that the change in courses of study, in methods of teaching, and in every detail of school administration that must come (and it will come) from an honest effort to realize the Froebelian thought, is startling. But what of the kindergarten itself? Are all kindergartners really true to Froebel? Do not

some of them exalt the letter above the spirit? Froebel made two bequests. First, he bequeathed us a body of doctrine which is so true, so inspiring, so vitalizing, that it is a priceless possession. Modern psychology has modified some of this doctrine. That was to be expected and the contributions of psychology should be gratefully acknowledged. Surely, a man like Froebel, who looked at truth with such open eyes must have himself expected that this would happen. But modern psychology has also given its indorsement to most of Froebel, to all indeed that we hold dear.

Second, Froebel bequeathed us a series of directions to enable us to concrete his principles. Most of these relate to the sub-primary period of instruction, the so-called kindergarten period. A few relate to the conduct of subjects in later grades. It was to be expected that eventually two schools of kindergarten practice would develop, the one emphasizing the Froebelian principles, the other the Froebelian practice. These two schools were most felicitously portrayed by Miss Patty Hill in a previous issue of the *Yearbook*.

Is it not fair to press upon the attention of kindergartners the same mode of thinking which we have demanded in the foregoing treatment of the so-called grades from the Froebelian standpoint? When a kindergartner insists on the use of a series of gifts and occupations just because they were prescribed by Froebel, or anyone else, how does she differ from a primary teacher who persists in using methods which also have the sanction of many honored names in the past? If the kindergartner claims that she is using the material because they express the Froebelian principles, then she must in all fairness demand that we follow throughout the post-kindergarten course the methods of teaching drawing prescribed by Froebel. In the present development of art-study in the schools, this would be the *reductio ad absurdum*. Indeed from this point of view it must be admitted that the primary school has shown more openness of mind than some of the champions of the kindergarten. Are we not indeed violating the fundamental demand of Froebel himself in exalting the practice above the principle? Listen: "For the living thought, the eternal divine principle as such demands and requires free self-activity and self-determination on the part of man." Why should the self-determination be granted to the

child and be withheld from the teacher? Is not its application universal?

The fealty of the kindergartner to Froebel is beautiful, and she has fought so many fights in his behalf that every fact of the kindergarten has become dear to her. Yet the great fact remains that if all education is to fuse into one, the kindergartner must do what she expects the primary teacher to do, sit at the feet of the children and ask them what is right. They know and they only. They do not know that they know, but they know, and they will tell us if we know how to ask and are not too proud to ask. No method of embodying Froebel's thought, no matter how valuable, can stand a moment after we have discovered a better. The principle of self-activity is eternal; the third gift is a possible expression. It was Froebel's expression, but after all the important consideration is the self-activity and not the third gift. It must be expressed in a thousand ways in the primary and grammar and high-school grades. Why are not many ways possible in the kindergarten?

It seems to the writer that the truth of the postulate laid down early in this article is unavoidable: that all education is one and that breaks are illogical. If this be true, unity so far as the Froebelian doctrine is concerned must come from an absolutely honest and unflinching application of the Froebelian laws to all school life, and this means the kindergarten as well as the primary or grammar school. When that consummation is reached the kindergarten as a distinct institution will have passed away, or rather it will have absorbed within itself the whole of education. That will be the day of its transfiguration. The day is hastening. And when one thinks of the idea of the divine purpose that runs all through the Froebelian writings, surely it is not irreverent to say of that day, that "then the whole earth shall be filled with the knowledge of the Lord as the waters cover the sea."

III

HOW CAN THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNERS AND PRIMARY TEACHERS CONTRIBUTE TO ECONOMY IN EDUCATION OF CHILDREN?

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WHAT IS ECONOMY?

Economy is here understood to mean not mere economy of time, but of energy; a conservation of all the forces of the individual, for his own development. It means, moreover, the conservation of his energies as a social factor. This educational economy means that the children are put by virtue of their school life into an efficient working relation with society. It means the pooling of native impulses and interests for social achievement. Economy concerns the teacher's energy as well. The conservation of her energies is also a necessity. The utilization of her varied capacities and especial talents, both temperamental and acquired, this too is an important educational economy.

There has been waste to the teacher and waste to the child through the disharmony of the kindergarten and the elementary school, and a tremendous waste to society in the loss, not of the school child's time, but of impulses starved that might have been fruitful, energies fritted away in petty, purposeless work, and motives lost that might have been turned into engines of power.

THE ROOT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

The disharmony between the spirit and aim of the elementary school and the spirit and aim of the kindergarten lies in the very roots of each. The school is built on the group plan, so also is the kindergarten; but the school group has always existed for convenience sake, the kindergarten group has existed from its beginning as a social necessity. The school has always kept the units in its group socially as far apart as possible. The kindergarten has con-

sciously striven to get them into the social reactions of criticisms and co-operation.

The school has chosen isolation of the individual in his work because it has feared the movement, the action, which free contact brings. It meant disturbance. The kindergarten has encouraged free contact because it has held that social habits must be formed very early.

The kindergarten has respected the native impulses and interests, the school has ignored them. The kindergarten has utilized tendencies to imitation, investigation, play, making, and art.

The school has taught not the arts of civilization, but two or three of them only, namely those which would make the learner an efficient clerk or salesman.

The kindergarten has striven to help children to discover and control their own powers; the school has striven to teach certain facts, to cover a certain amount of ground, and to give discipline in habits of industry and accuracy.

In short, the chief aim of the school has been instruction to the end of "getting on" in the world. The chief aim of the kindergarten has been development to the end of individual completeness in the social relations.

While these are the avowed theoretic differences in organization and end there can be no economic adjustment of kindergarten to school.

The kindergarten, however, has often fallen short of its principles while the school has been undergoing changes that have widened its aim.

The kindergarten has spread rapidly in this country because of its fidelity to the fundamental impulses toward play in the forms of making, building, shaping, dramatizing, and because it obeys the desire for companionship and recognition.

That it has suffered from over-emphasis on the formal side of Froebel's idea may be charged against it. It has suffered from the very condition which has given it so strong a foundation in the minds of the thinkers of the previous quarter-century, namely, the idealistic absolutism of Froebel's philosophy which has given to his teaching the authority of a gospel, and to its orthodox leaders the qualities of discipleship.

The kindergarten has suffered equally from the fact that it has been considered a dumping-ground for young women who have had too little education for other departments of teaching. It is only recently that any save a few training schools have been able to maintain a high standard.

To be fair it must be stated that, as we all know, the school is greater than its traditions both in method and aim. Great teachers there have been in all times, who have transcended the aims of instruction and discipline inherited from the early Renaissance. It remains for this generation to reconstruct educational philosophy, to bring it into harmony with our outlook upon social betterment, and to make it run with the current of mental growth, not against it.

FORCES MAKING FOR HARMONY

There are mighty forces playing upon both school and kindergarten bringing them nearer together. These forces are the spirit of scientific method, the genetic study of mental life, the moral awakening expressed in the sensitiveness to good and evil in social conditions, the effort toward social progress, the breaking of the bonds of authoritative ecclesiasticism, and the growing realization of a broader, freer religious belief. Away beneath and beyond both school and kindergarten in the tendencies of society and in the research of men of science, the enlightening processes are at work that will make for the future, not two radically different things—a kindergarten and a school—but a continuous educational organization. Then the question of the economic training of kindergartners and elementary teachers will solve itself.

Even now we have sporadic cases of the kind of school in which this unification is possible.

Psychology has shown us some of the defects of kindergarten method, while it has, in the main, reinforced its theoretic basis. Psychology enjoins upon the school just that procedure which makes it truly continuous with the kindergarten. It has shown us that, as Froebel said of the education of boys: "Lessons through and in work are by far the most profitable." It has shown us that the school cannot prepare for life by dealing with the formalities of reading and writing the abstractions of number and the dead facts of history and geography.

Psychology has shown us the force of suggestion and imitation. It has made plain the fact that imitation and suggestion are fruitful in the social play of little children, that the kindergarten was altogether right in its fostering of these plays that a child might gain in this early stage whatever of social training he could absorb from representing the various phases of social activity. It has shown us that the relation which the child of kindergarten age seeks blindly in his play is still sought continuously and ever more consciously by the child of school age. Psychology has shown us that it is through concrete experiences that stimulus to thinking comes and enforces thereby a continuance of that contact with things and events with the phenomena of nature and the processes found in industry and trade which the kindergarten child is given.

Sociology gives us the same picture of primitive man evolving a civilization and a higher type of mind by the continuous meeting and solving of the concrete problems enforced by the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. It shows us the child at play at hunting, fishing, tent-making, and fire-building, and later sharing in the industries of home and tribe. We civilized folk have in our greater wisdom divorced the child from any active interests in his home and industries and have driven him from fear of untoward consequences to school where his normal tastes for tent-building, cave-digging, camping, meet a check. We have snubbed his interest in real work and forced him to hours, weeks, and years of imprisonment at tasks which have to him no remote bearing upon the important pursuits of life. Just at the age when he might be learning the strength of co-operation in work we set him solitary at a desk to furrow his brow over abstractions, formulations, and dreary drill of the schools.

From the modern axiom "All consciousness is motor," we are learning to build the curriculum of the elementary schools on overt activities. The kindergartner and primary teacher have gained therein another point of contact.

SCHOOLS THAT ARE EXTENSIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN IDEA

I can think, at this moment, of nine noted schools, not including the famous one at Tuskegee, in which the work is absolutely continuous with that of the kindergarten, and is carrying into effect its

vital principles; if not avowedly, still implicitly. Not that all of them have kindergartens, some of them being boarding-schools located in the country.

To go into one of these schools gives one the same impression of joyousness and lively interest that one finds in a kindergarten. Here a group of children have returned with sketches from nature from which they are to select one to be used as the *motif* for the decoration of a bare wall in their eighth-grade room. It is to be enlarged to a scale for which measurements have been taken and calculations have been made. Another group has planned a garden, measured and platted it, and the children are just going out to lay it off. A third has been carrying on a series of experiments in fire-making. A fourth is in the cooking-room preparing a luncheon to which the children of a neighboring room have been invited. That luncheon seems merely a tea party to the casual observer, but it is the climax of some weeks of cooking in which they have learned the reaction of heat on starches, the rising properties of beaten egg, of soda and acids, and the main facts of absorption and evaporation in fruits. They have experimented, written recipes, measured quantities, learned the values of halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths, reduced and expanded recipes in mathematical proportions to serve fewer or more people. In short it has furnished motive for much systematic work in science, reading, writing, and number. Here a group of seventh-grade children are in the library reading—another are working over a sand table illustrating the transporting and deposition of silt. Another are calculating the amount of wheat grown in Minnesota and the number of people it will supply with bread, this following on a visit to the grain elevators.

All will soon assemble to hear a French play given by the fifth grade. This is life. The school is treated as if it were a little village or a big family. Real activities are engaged in. The initiative of the individual is encouraged. Situations are brought about which arouse the desire to work, to make, to invent. Natural avenues of interest are exploited, each group works together upon problems commensurate with the power and interests of its members. The groups come together in general assembly daily, and there contribute whatever of interest each may have to offer as the result of the common work or investigation. They are kept in close touch with the processes

of nature through the changing year. The supreme emphasis is placed by the teachers upon the development of controlling interests, the enlistment of sincere purpose. Some of the typical activities are gardening, wood-working, pottery, and modeling, cooking, weaving, dyeing, sewing, book binding, and printing. Formal studies are pursued under the necessities forced upon the children by the demands felt in their more concrete work for writing, reading, and number. Drill grows out of the plainly felt need for smoothness, ease, and quickness. The social good is the corrective of behavior and furnishes the stimulus for concrete achievement. Critical review of their own work gives them the impetus to further endeavor and study. Failure is the starting-point for persistent effort. The discipline of life comes to these children as it comes to adults, enforced by the great measure of desire which goes into the work they undertake.

There are play-times, festivals, the field-day with games and sports, excursions to the lake shore and the woods, at which young and old play together. The keynote of its discipline is the solution of problems. The habit developed ought to be the power to seize upon a situation, find a point of interest, analyze its factors, and to deal with them intelligently. This school needs no *connecting* "class" with its kindergarten. It connects. Such a school makes the laboratory for the normal student. She may study the technique of the kindergarten, or of the primary grades, or of the so-called grammar grades. She may devote herself to science teaching or the teaching of handicrafts, or of music, or of physical culture, but first, and before all, she must become imbued with the fundamental doctrines of education as they are being demonstrated before her eyes.

I have magnified the elementary school out of all proportion to the rest of this paper because it seems to me to be the basis and foundation of all experience. It furnishes the point of contact.

FUNCTION OF PRACTICE

In all school training we have three main factors, each with its especial function: the departments of instruction in arts and sciences, the department of philosophy and education, and the laboratory of education furnished by the practice school. These

organs of the school are equally and vitally important. It would be crippled if any one of them were weak, and yet in the practice school the center of the whole is found. It is in the practice school that theories are put to the test, it is here that knowledge and experience with children are gained. Here should be aroused that zeal for the work of teaching which carries the teacher over difficulties, and doubts.

Every instructor in the departments relies on the elementary school of course as a means of demonstrating what he means when he deals with values of his subjects with its presentation, and its significance to the children. But does every instructor make clear to his students the delicacy of the problem of dealing with children? Does he make his students appreciate that each one of them may be responsible for the opening of the children's minds to ideas, or for the closing of their minds forever to certain aspects when badly presented? Does he inspire them with the desire to teach? Does he put practice-teaching in the light of a great privilege, as an artistic and delicate piece of work?

It rests largely with the teachers of science, history, literature, art, number, and every other subject that touches great ramifying human interests, to see to it that, however deeply he may immerse his students in his own subject, the enthusiasm for it is carried over into teaching. To this end no departmental instructor can afford to hold aloof from psychology. He must know children as well as he knows his subject, and he must know life, and feel the relation of his particular subject to social problems. The focus of his knowledge must sooner or later rest upon the school. Nor can application of subject-matter to school be secured by lecture or educational method and device. The application is for the student to work out. She must find the points of meaning, her first problem, and her plan of presenting them, which is her second.

FUNCTION OF STUDENT TEACHER IN PRACTICE SCHOOL

The practice school can mean nothing in shaping the professional character of the future teacher if she is merely an observer of its activities. It will count for little in an ethical and emotional sense if the prospective teacher goes into it merely to test and try experiments as she would go into a laboratory. Laboratory the

elementary school and kindergarten must be, but never chiefly nor solely laboratory. The student must be enlisted sympathetically and intellectually in the active pursuits of the children. The problem for the normal school is here; the raw, untrained, crude student with vague theories must somehow enter the schoolroom door filled with a wholesome consciousness of her function in that room, with something to do for and with the children that she herself is really interested in.

Much knowledge the normal school cannot give its students within the limits of a two-years' course. Their educational theory must of necessity be comparatively untried and therefore somewhat unassimilated, but some things the normal school can do. Its students can go out with a view down an alluring perspective of study and a zeal for work with children. They cannot be full of knowledge on every subject that they may need to teach in the elementary school. They may, however, have been taught how to study, the meaning of study, and be filled with a strong motive for work and a view of teaching that enforces respect and sincerity. To this end the practice school exists.

How to achieve this in detail is the problem. I believe that much practice teaching is scrappy. The students prepare an isolated lesson, enter, relieve themselves of their mental load, and depart. The short visit may serve for purposes of the instructor who wishes to have his class see an illustrative lesson, given either by a trained teacher or by a class member for analysis and instruction, but there must be something more than this. The children cannot be known, in this fragmentary view. A longer stay for a period of weeks gives the student an opportunity to get into a normal social relation with the children, to see them reacting to varied subjects, in various conditions, to see them when they are fresh in mind and when they are fatigued. There are numerous ways in which the student teacher can get into a normal relation with the children of any grade, class, or group, before her teaching begins. She can assist in handicrafts, seat-work, accompany them on excursions, and take part in plays and games. Then when her own time for teaching comes, she is one of them and not that anomaly, a "practice-teacher."

The kindergarten student has had an advantage in this respect

in the usual separate kindergarten training-school, where it has been customary to send her to a large kindergarten in which she has been responsible for a group. This has developed early in her period of training a sense of responsibility and the keen interest which accompanies actual work. Its tendency is to resourcefulness and ease. On the other hand, there has been a great loss of power, a great waste due to the weakness of her supervision and the uncritical attitude that she bears to her own work, for as the head kindergartner is usually busy herself, and is often untrained in analysis and criticism, she cannot help the student to get the principles lying beneath her successes and failures. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon two points, for both the students who are working in the primary grades, and those in the kindergartens:

First, time for real acquaintance, not mere "knowledge about" the children as they react to the varied influences that play upon them; time to know differences in individual character and temperament; opportunity to enter sincerely and sympathetically into their activities; freedom to initiate, carry out, and revise her own plans.

Second, definite help in reviewing her own teaching with the head teacher, to discover her weak points, that she may be helped to realize some of the fundamentals that go into artistic teaching.

Good teaching in kindergarten and primary school involves something vastly more than giving lessons with logical method. It means that undefinable influence exerted by the tactful, intuitive, and sympathetic person. Froebel called it "nurture." Perhaps this quality can never be taught or trained into any student, but it can be very successfully choked. It involves sensitiveness to the mental and emotional differences in different children, readiness to supply the unspoken needs read in expression and gesture, or guessed from eloquent but subtle indications.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CANDIDATES

We are often distressed at the youth of candidates for the kindergarten normal class, but we do not always make the best of their youthfulness. The training teachers, full of the deeper insights of philosophy of education despair of imparting to them their point of view and richness of expression. Of course the ideal

condition would be that in which plenty of cultivated, tactful persons of good taste would appear at the doors of our normal schools to demand entrance to the kindergarten training class; but, taking conditions as we often find them, we must not forget that the girls have something quite as essential, namely, a warmth of emotional life, the lively interest of the youthful mind in the very things that the kindergarten children are interested in.

For several years I have asked my incoming classes to write for me their reasons for choosing the kindergarten as a field for work. The answers are not tabulated, but there is a typical one: "I have always liked little children and love to be with them and have looked forward all through high school to teaching in the kindergarten." If we were only wise enough instead of being discouraged at the lack of knowledge and insight displayed in this reply, we should utilize this womanly impulse which is blindly trying to get scope and an object on which to expend itself. There must be a way of securing to her a growth in wisdom, in discrimination, and purpose to do something more than amuse and enjoy her charges. This then is one of the great problems that confronts the kindergarten normal teacher. We may raise the standard, require junior college work or full college work for entrance to the kindergarten normal; the chances are that we will then in many cases lose either the student or the fresh vigor of her impulses. It is the familiar question of "nascent periods" which we are facing. Here is a great desire, it is on the *crescendo*. Shall we catch it and train it while it is growing or let it alone until the college girl segregated from family life and contact with young children has lost something of the vitality and starved this impulse which may never blossom as freshly? If she teaches later it will be from an aroused interest in subject-matter and she is most likely to choose grammar-grade or high-school work as offering most scope. Still, later, she may return to the desire to teach little children, from an intellectual interest in psychology or child-study, aroused in her college work.

I do not think this an easy question to settle. There are many poor kindergartners made from this material, but I question whether if they had been initiated more artistically into the psychology and philosophy of the kindergarten many of them might not have developed a broader and deeper view of the work they

are trying to do. I believe an excursion into the socially organized elementary school would be most helpful to these students. I believe also that to confront them with the formalities of the subtle intuitions of Froebel at the beginning of their student life is a mistake; that a simple philosophy of education developed from their own experience first and a sympathetic kind of child-psychology or child-study makes a better introduction and point of departure. With such studies as Dr. Hall's *Story of a Sand-Pile*, and *Contents of Children's Minds*, Barnes's *Studies in Education*, and Sully's *Studies of Childhood*, one can seize the sympathetic and imaginative side of their interest and prepare it for the more thoughtful and philosophic student attitude. This is not an argument for preference of the immature over the mature candidate, but an attempt to point out the compensations and possibilities of training such students. When the candidate does retain her sympathy and elasticity, the more mature mind is infinitely to be preferred.

UNIFYING THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNER AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

That the kindergartner and the elementary teacher should be trained under such conditions that each may become an integral factor in a *whole* school from the baby group in the kindergarten to the high school seems to be a foregone conclusion. We need the skill that comes from a certain specialization but we must face the danger of isolation in seeking specialized training. The training of the kindergartner has been over-specialized. It has, to be sure, been broad in the sense that she has taught the fundamental formulations of a large educational philosophy. It has been fatally narrow in that she has had much contact with the little child's mental type to the exclusion of the older type, with its developed interests. It has been restricted to such subject-matter as may be presented to the very young child.

The intensive, narrow training gives long "schools of work," tremendous amount of detail in occupations, and a very great deal of uncritical practice-teaching in the kindergarten. This might well be in part displaced by a longer perspective in the literature, the nature-study, or appropriate science, and the art of both kinder-

garten and elementary school. In this study stress may well be laid on the adaptation of any given subject-matter or experience to successive stages of growth. This adaptation will be greatly facilitated by observation of definite work in kindergarten and grades, to watch the children's interest, or reaction. It will be further given a basis by the student's work in psychology and child-study which can be in the main the same for both kindergarten and elementary training students.

All students who are preparing for work in the kindergarten and primary grades need a thorough training in the elements of handicraft, and acquaintance with the simpler principles of constructions, and with the possibilities of wood, textiles, leather, cardboard, and clay. They need training in the principles underlying graphic art, such training as will give them some feeling for proportion, color combinations, and harmony. The ability to draw, model, paint, build, sing, and dance may not be developed in every student, but all must at least realize the function of these modes of expression, and be trained well in one or some of them.

By finding the native fitness of each student for some line of artistic expression and cultivating it, teachers may be sent out who can give to the schools in which they teach a power which will touch more than the single room or group.

Young children attend, image, and think best with the end of some definite achievement in view; this self-realization is the law of their mental growth. Therefore teachers of young children must not only appreciate this psychologic fact, but must themselves be made skilful and resourceful in carrying out the aims and interests appropriate to these stages in art forms. The training for the kindergarten and primary teacher would naturally then include a very similar emphasis on the fundamental art principles as found in painting, modeling, and designing. The variation would come in the problem of adaptation to the powers and interests of children at various stages.

Not only in art-forms does this law hold good, the science and nature-study of the school is subject to this law of expression. A child's acquaintance, contact, or experience with the forms and processes of nature naturally leads to the desire to control, or hold the controlling forces more completely. Therefore again experi-

ment, investigation, and discovery both lead to and wait on making and doing.

Child-study and genetic psychology are again needed to illumine the true course of the rise and growth of the scientific attitude. When the teachers of nature-study, natural history, and experimental science can look through the subject to the apprehending mind, and out of the specialized subject to its bearing on life, we shall have the ideal science teacher for both kindergartner and elementary teacher. Children have the power of observing and drawing conclusions, and further of applying these conclusions to the interpretation of new cases. The continuity of this scientific attitude is unbroken. Why then should his life from kindergarten through school be broken into horizontal sections, fitting one set of people to deal with one section and one solely with a later?

The beginning courses in natural science in the normal school may well include kindergarten students. Later courses can furnish a wider and deeper knowledge for those who are to give special attention to the science in the upper grades, but *all* should first have work together which will give an outlook on the field and functions of natural history and experimental science. This would do away with the sentimentality of kindergarten "nature-work." A supplementary kindergartner's course should deal with the adaptation of material to little children, in which the students would psychologize the material, and further learn the practical and necessary modes of dealing with gardening, window gardening, care of pets, simple cooking, and the selection and management of excursions for little children.

Both kindergarten and elementary teachers need the same outlook on literature and to a certain extent history. They need to know the meaning of the story in education, the qualities of good stories for children, the sources from which they may be drawn, the adaptation and telling of stories. It is on this last point that differentiation may begin, and yet the line cannot be closely drawn, in the selection and telling of stories for kindergarten and later ages.

Both kindergartners and primary teachers need a view of what is sometimes called the history of social occupations. It furnishes the clue and background to our common social needs and relations, and while interpreting the civilization of today reveals its continuity

with the past. This great factor in general culture also shows the meaning of social occupations as educative means for children. It links the building, making, and social imitation plays of the children with the constructive occupations of the school and with its dramatic interpretations of social life. It offers to the children of the elementary school opportunities for discovery and invention, in solving some of the problems that have confronted the race in satisfying the needs for food, clothing, and shelter.

The point of view gained in such a course as this seems to be after a thorough test one of the most unifying and cultural in the whole range for *all* teachers of children.

It would certainly seem as if the teacher of mathematics should have something to offer the kindergarten student if it is only the warning that she must not yield to the temptation of being over-mathematical in her use of Froebel's mathematically constructed gifts. This warning comes forcibly from the person who sees the whole of the child's growth in control of number. He can well assist the kindergarten student to find what is psychologically appropriate to the kindergarten stage.

With the present emphasis on games, sports, and dancing as complementary to formal gymnastics it is certain that both classes of students can unite economically in most of the gymnastic work. While the elementary students go into the older forms of athletics, the kindergarten and primary students should spend more time in the acquisition of a repertoire of children's games: ball games, folk games, ring games, and representation plays.

In child-study and psychology there is—let us be thankful for it—one great unifying and solving force. Here all students are at one in the effort to interpret mental function, and the order of mental growth. Probably the latest courses taken by the kindergarten under this head should deal with specialization in the study of the play-period of growth.

Throughout this discursive and very insufficient discussion of my subject, I have tried to show the modes of study that would lead to unity in fundamentals and variety in particular adjustments. The problem of teaching the younger children enforces an adaptation of subject-matter and method to the more infantile grasp and scope. Out of the wider field then the student must select, adjust,

and organize. This offers her a great opportunity for discrimination and study of children. The weakest thing in our customary training of kindergartners is the giving of too much predigested food, and the browsing on fenced in fields where they may find arranged *only* what is suitable to the child under six years of age. Unity! unity! we cry; then let us put the kindergartner and primary teacher together wherever possible, and it is possible, whenever fundamentals are being dealt with, either in subject-matter, methods, or psychology. Specialization then will be the later flower, the finer adaptation of means to end. Selection and organization and teaching art furnish the kindergartner's special training.

IV

THE RELATIVE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF HAVING ONE SUPERVISOR OF KINDERGARTENS AND PRIMARY WORK IN THE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

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There are many reasons for the kindergarten's isolation from the public-school system. Most of these are the outcome of ignorance on the part of both kindergartners and school people as to the meaning or value of their respective departments of education. This ignorance is largely due to the misunderstandings which arise from the establishment of any new system.

As time will remove these misunderstandings, they may be passed over while consideration is given to the fundamental cause of the existing gap between the kindergarten and the primary school.

This cause embraces more than the difference in methods or in phraseology between the two, since it deals directly with the ideals which have shaped the course of each. Kindergartens were introduced into this country while the schools were steeped in the formalism of academic education, and for years they stood for an ideal which was opposed in spirit and practice to every tradition of the educational scheme. Naturally they were not looked upon with favor by the educators of that day. Kindergartens were either condemned as harmful or impractical, or else they were looked upon as being good in themselves, but as something entirely foreign to the school as a whole. As long as this attitude existed, there could be no real effort made to combine the two, although there have always been spasmodic local attempts to bring about their union. Usually these attempts have aimed to so change the kindergarten practice that it might be more consistent with the primary-school methods. However, school ideals have been changing, and

while kindergartens have been spreading and growing in numbers and strength, the school system itself has been undergoing a revolution, until now in theory, at least, the two may be said to accept as their basis the same fundamental principles of education. Since this is so, why is there a gap between the kindergarten and the elementary school? In theory there is none; in practice, however, it does exist in the majority of city-school systems, a real menace to the kindergarten, and a cause for much discussion among school men.

We have had much advice. Kindergartners, teachers, superintendents, and even college men, have bent their efforts to secure the desired unity. This advice has been of immense value. It has caused a much-needed awakening in the ranks of the kindergartners, and is probably largely responsible for the revolt against the traditional kindergarten methods, which has led many to the modification of kindergarten practice along the lines of modern child-study and educational philosophy. It has also established a better understanding between the kindergarten and elementary school, and best of all, has brought about a real desire for a closer co-operation.

A careful survey of the subject, therefore, would indicate that since a common view point has been reached that the next step is to make a practical adjustment which shall wisely reconstruct methods on both sides to the end of establishing a connected scheme for education as a whole.

Many of us believe that this will come more quickly, and more intelligently through a closer supervision of both kindergartens and primary grades—a supervision which shall include under one head the direct oversight and management of the kindergartens and at least the first three grades of the elementary school. It is the object of this paper, therefore, to set forth for discussion some of the advantages and disadvantages of such an arrangement.

ADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN

The recognition accorded to the kindergarten by this combination would in itself do much to place it upon a firmer basis than it has heretofore occupied. To place it in the position of one of the grades of a school, instead of a separate department, would imme-

diately insure for it a public recognition which would go far toward bridging the gap between it and the first grade. As part of the primary school, there would at once arise the desire on both sides for a closer union. A desire which should stimulate a closer study of the aims and function of each, and which would furnish that real incentive for necessary adjustment and mutual modifications.

This broadening of the educational horizon of the kindergartners should break down any tendency toward that exclusiveness with which they have been charged, since it would force upon them the conception of the whole scheme of education, and would therefore help them to see the kindergarten in a truer relation to the school in general.

Such a supervision could also, without harm to the kindergarten, practically modify many of its methods to fit the requirements of the succeeding grades. Some of these modifications may be considered under the following heads:

1. *A better selection of subject-matter for the kindergarten program.*—This should provide that those interests, both in nature and human nature which are fundamental to man, should form the basis for the program, and further that these interests should be considered in the light of the child's environment and his stage of development. This would give a more logical foundation for the primary course of study than would a program built on Froebel's *Mother-Play* or one which considered only the temporary and fleeting interests of the five-year-old child.

2. *A more systematic attempt to simplify kindergarten handwork, games, and stories.*—Much of the handwork or so-called occupation work of the kindergarten is too complicated in execution and finish for the four- and five-year-old children. All kindergarten work should be so simple and crude that the children would be able to construct it without so much personal supervision as is now given. Primary teachers complain, and justly so, that kindergartners can procure from their children results which they cannot secure from those who are two or three years older. It would be, therefore, of immense help in establishing handwork in the primary school if a supervisor could suggest occupations which would allow for much independent work in the kindergarten, and thereby prepare the children to execute without much help most of the

constructive work planned for the first grade. Most primary teachers have too many pupils to allow them to give the time for personally supervised handwork; therefore, they leave it out entirely, or substitute so-called busy-work, which often provides only a means of activity without taking into account educational values.

There should also be provided a better selection of games for the kindergarten; a selection which should recognize the racial instincts of the child, and which should be better suited to his physical needs.

Stories, too, need modifying along these same lines. Many of the kindergarten stories now used are too long and complicated as to plot and interests.

3. *Consideration as to the use of tools.*—Many of the same tools used in the kindergarten are also employed in the grades, such as pencils, scissors, and paint brushes. Provisions should be made whereby kindergarten children shall be given the correct method of holding, and using these tools, thus forestalling the possibility of primary teachers having to break up bad habits before they can install good ones.

These points may be said to deal with the kindergarten curriculum, if such a term may be applied to the work of such tiny children. There are, however, many adjustments on the administrative side which may be made by a supervisor to the great benefit of the kindergartens and the school.

She may arrange certain reports for the kindergarten children that shall give to the first-grade teacher a basis for grading the incoming class. These reports should give the length of attendance, the ability and physical and mental development of each child who is promoted. This would be of distinct advantage to the child, since it would make it possible to adapt the first-grade work to his ability from the beginning of his primary career; and besides, it would protect the reputation of the kindergarten by furnishing information to the primary teacher which would enable her to realize that there is a big difference between the child who has had two years in the kindergarten, and one who has spent only a portion of that time there. At present, there is a general tendency to average the attainments of all kindergarten children without any consideration as to the time spent by each one in the kindergarten,

with the very natural consequence that there is a decided lowering of the standard of kindergarten results.

The supervisor can also provide some means whereby age alone shall not determine promotion to the first grade. There are often children of six years who are not fitted, either mentally or physically, to do the prescribed first-grade work in a year, and for their own good they should at least be allowed to stay in the kindergarten until they are more developed. This would be an immense help to the first grade teacher, and would prevent the many cases of discouragement and confusion on the part of slow or backward little ones, who are often injured for years by forcing.

She could make, too, some provision for the promotion of such teachers as are not fitted for kindergarten work to the grades where they can be reasonably successful; and also see to it that when a kindergartner shows herself capable of larger responsibilities she shall have a chance of advancement to such school offices as are open to the rank and file of the grade teachers.

ADVANTAGES TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The advantages to the primary school would be similar in character to those just stated; they would follow the same general heads with such modifications as were desirable to bring about the adjustment from the school side.

The installation of the kindergarten as part of the school system would place it in such direct relation with the grades that the opportunity for the spreading of the kindergarten spirit would be much increased. This would benefit the primary school immeasurably for, not only has this spirit, which has been called by someone the "mother spirit," accomplished much in bringing about the newer ideals of education, but it must become even more dominant before we can bring about a greater spontaneity in the grades.

The association of primary and kindergarten teachers, especially if this be accomplished by joint meetings presided over by the supervisor, will in time eliminate the prejudice which has held many school people from a better understanding of kindergarten aims and practice. There are also many definite adjustments on the part of the primary grades, which the supervisor may deem as necessary as the adjustments from the kindergarten side. Some of these are as follows:

1. A scheme should be outlined for a course of study which shall take cognizance of the development which the kindergarten child receives before he enters the first grade. It is generally admitted that he has a better use of his hands, but it is seldom that any provision is made for the use of the interests and experiences which he has acquired by his months of kindergarten training.

These might be utilized directly in the teaching of all the first grade technical studies especially reading; and it should be the supervisor's business to suggest means and methods by which this fund of material shall be utilized and turned to account.

It is the author's opinion, indeed, that at this point might be made the truest connection between the kindergarten and the elementary schools since it is essential that primary teachers shall feel that the kindergarten prepares directly in some manner for the prescribed work of their grade.

2. Such a course of study should be a direct outgrowth of the kindergarten program.

The same interests which dominate the child in the kindergarten are keenest in the life of the primary child, and a conscious provision for meeting these interests could be devised by the supervisor.

3. Selection of appropriate games and stories. In the same manner she could outline primary games and suggest stories suitable for the developing and enlarging interests of the maturing child.

4. *Selection of kindergarten materials and methods for primary school.*—There are many kindergarten materials, and some methods which are applicable to the grades above the kindergarten. These could be selected and incorporated into the practice of the primary school by a competent supervisor, who could outline a course in handwork, for example, which should take into consideration the ability which the children have acquired in the kindergarten, besides providing for a consistent development of manual dexterity and artistic appreciation, through the succeeding grades.

ADVANTAGES TO THE SCHOOL

Since the advantages suggested as accruing to kindergarten and primary school would affect the entire school, it is not necessary to consider this side of the question at any great length. There are a

few financial considerations, however, which might carry weight with a school board.

In the first place there would be a saving in salary by the merging of the positions of kindergarten and primary supervisor.

The average salary for primary supervisor seems to be about two thousand dollars per annum, while kindergarten supervisors will probably average one thousand; in the event, therefore, of a school system employing both, the combined salary for supervision would be approximately three thousand dollars. By combining the two offices, this should be reduced considerably. An opinion only can be ventured on this point, since it has been impossible to find any statistics in regard to such a salary, the only city reporting a system of kindergarten and primary supervision being Rochester, which in 1905 paid a salary of two thousand dollars to its supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades. If an adjustment, however, were made on the basis of a 25 per cent. increase, which would seem a fair estimate of the worth of the added work, there would still be a saving of five hundred dollars.

A supervisor who had in her hands the equipment and furnishing of both kindergarten and primary grades, should be able also to make a better adjustment of the cost of each, bringing the expense of the kindergarten into a better relation to that of the school. This could be done by selecting cheaper materials which would serve the same purpose as those which are commonly used in kindergartens and by reducing the expense of all materials for hand work by buying substantially the same things for both kindergarten and primary grades.

She should also be able to arrange a better salary schedule and better hours of teaching for the kindergarten teachers, thus putting them on a fairer salary basis than they occupy now in many cities.

DISADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

On this side of the question there is one problem so serious that it should be given perhaps the most careful consideration of any item in the whole subject. As this grows out of present conditions it may be looked upon as temporary, but for the time being it embodies real danger, which should be fully realized before the scheme under discussion is accepted.

The problem is to find a person whose training has been such that she could supervise both kindergarten and primary schools with equal success.

While there are many courses in education offered by universities and normal schools which should fit one without any special preparation in methods, to plan a course of study for children between the ages of four and ten, still as all the tendency in the past has been toward specialization, it would be almost impossible to secure anyone who would not be biased in favor of either the kindergarten or the primary school. In either case, a chance for grave mistakes and actual danger is imminent.

If the supervisor chosen be a kindergartner, she might actually damage the kindergarten cause by forcing upon primary teachers kindergarten methods before they have accepted kindergarten principles. There are many methods suitable for kindergarten children which may be really detrimental to older children by retarding them on the play-stage of their development; and to introduce these into the primary school would be premature and unwise, and would be apt to arouse an antagonism on the part of the primary teachers which would defeat the very object for which the supervisor is working.

Then, too, she might not possess either the knowledge or ability which would enable her to shape the primary course of study from the technical side, and her ignorance in this respect and inability to provide practical help and suggestions would give her only a half-hold on the situation.

She might have the wisdom of Solomon in selecting profitable busy work, suitable stories, or educational games which are applicable to the primary grades, but unless she could meet her problem on all sides by having a knowledge of education in its broadest sense, she would be building a structure which would not stand beyond the reign of her personal influence. The hand work might be accepted, her stories told, and her games played, her suggestions being accepted even with enthusiasm, but it would be like building a house upon the sands for it would be the establishment of methods without the groundwork of principles. As a permanent adjustment such work could have no lasting hold on either teacher or school.

On the other hand, a supervisor who has been trained in, and all of whose experience has been along, primary lines, might work untold harm to the kindergarten.

If she has no knowledge of what the kindergarten is trying to accomplish; if to her eyes kindergarten procedure is play which leads only to a disorder of thinking, and a lawlessness of conduct, she would be almost sure to attempt a connection between the kindergarten and the school by shaping the former to the general conduct of the latter. Formal school discipline might be demanded, and training along technical lines so unduly emphasized that the kindergarten would degenerate into a sub-primary school, the maintenance of which would probably not be worth either the time or the money expended.

Under either of these circumstances, it would undoubtedly be better to employ a separate supervisor for each department, since it would be infinitely better to keep the two apart than to retard their ultimate consolidation, by forcing premature or unwise adjustments upon either.

Aside from such possible danger, however, there would seem to be no real advantage to be gained from such a separation.

It is true that such a division might so lighten the duties of each supervisor that she would have more time for specialization, or fuller preparation in her chosen line. It would also allow her to give more individual help to her teachers, a certain amount of which is necessary to any successful supervision.

It is equally true, however, that unless the two supervisors were both unusually interested in bringing about the union of their departments, and could bring to the solution of their problem a certain amount of knowledge which would enable each to know the educational value of the work of the other, we should still be to some extent in the condition which we now deplore. It is not only necessary that practical connections should be devised, but someone must have the authority to enforce them, before any permanent unity between the kindergarten and the primary school can be fully established.

A PRACTICAL DEMONSTRATION

It is unfortunate that this experiment of having one supervisor for both kindergarten and primary schools has not been attempted

in enough cities to enable us to form an average of results. It is encouraging, however, that it has proved successful in most of the places where it has been tried long enough to have passed the experimental stage. As Rochester is the best example of what has been done along this line, it will be permissible perhaps to use it as a practical illustration of what may be accomplished.

There is no question in Rochester as to whether the kindergarten is a part of the schools. It is considered as necessary as the first grade, and every building has its large, especially planned kindergarten room, where morning and afternoon sessions are held. Nor is the kindergarten spirit confined to the kindergarten room. It dominates the entire system, even the high schools, and has been largely responsible for the creation of the splendid ideal of the Rochester schools.

This has been brought about by the close association of teachers and kindergartners, by the successful joint meeting of the two departments, and, most of all, by the plan which has provided for the promotion of kindergarten teachers to the grades, even to principalships, Rochester having the unique distinction of having placed two such teachers in charge of grammar-school buildings.

In short, Rochester seems to have evolved by this joint supervision a practical and successful co-operation of the kindergarten and the primary school, and it is to be hoped that her example will encourage other city school systems to try the plan as rapidly as they can secure supervisors whose training has fitted them to handle successfully both sides of the problem.

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REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. THE WASHINGTON MEETINGS, FEBRUARY 24 AND 26, 1908

General topic: "The Relation of Superintendents and Principals to the Training and Improvement of Their Teachers."

ANALYSIS OF THE GENERAL PROBLEM

A. The problem—its nature, conditions, and causes.

B. The solution—chief modes.

I. By efficient supervision:

1. Fundamental principles and guiding ideals.
2. The need of superintendents and principals who are masters in the art and science of education.
3. The most effective methods of supervision now in practice.

II. By voluntary work—best forms now in practice.

III. By required work:

1. In rural-school systems.
2. In city-school systems.

IV. By work stimulated by advance in salary or position:

1. Advance based upon promotional examinations.
2. Advance based upon completion of accredited courses of study.

V. Miscellaneous:

1. Special courses of study for teachers in service; credit to be given in normal schools and colleges for completion of these non-resident courses.
2. The use of educational publications.
 - (a) By the general educational press.
 - (b) By normal schools and colleges.
3. An eligible waiting-list determined by accepted evidence of preparation and cadet teaching.
4. Leave of absence with or without pay.

C. The problem and its solution from the teacher's point of view.

I. The need, spirit, and attitude.

II. The problem of time, energy and expense.

III. Freedom of individuality under supervision.

D. Academic professional preparation before entering service in its relation to progress under superintendent or principal.

Discussion was based upon the Society's *Seventh Yearbook*, Part I. The following programs of ten-minute discussions were carried out:

PROGRAM FOR MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 7:45 P. M.

STRATTON D. BROOKS, *Presiding*.

Introduction of the Subject.

CHARLES D. LOWRY, District Superintendent of Schools, *Chicago*.

"A Survey of the Subject as Derived from a Study of Reports from Superintendents and Principals."

JOSEPH S. TAYLOR, District Superintendent, *New York City*.

"Methods of Supervision by the Principal Compared with the Methods of Supervision by the Superintendent."

W. L. STEPHENS, Superintendent of Schools, *Lincoln, Neb.*

"Salary as Affected by Professional Improvement. The Lincoln Plan."

J. STANLEY BROWN, Superintendent Township High School, *Joliet, Ill.*

"The Qualifications of Superintendents and Principals as Affecting the Solution of the Problem."

ALBERT S. COOK, Superintendent of Schools, *Baltimore County, Md.*

"The Improvement of Teachers through Supervision in the County Schools of Maryland."

CLARENCE F. CARROLL, Superintendent of Schools, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"Advantages of the All-Day Grade Institute."

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, Supervisor of Kindergartens and Primary Education, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"The Problem and Its Solution as Seen by the Primary Supervisor."

FRANK W. COOLEY, Superintendent of Schools, *Evansville, Ind.*

"How Secure Continuous Professional Growth of Teachers, thus Preventing Arrested Development."

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Superintendent of Schools, *St. Louis, Mo.*

"Individual Freedom and Initiative as Factors in Improvement of Teachers."

PROGRAM FOR WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 4:30 P. M.

REUBEN POST HALLECK, Principal Boys' High-School, *Louisville, Ky.*

"The Superintending of High-school Teachers."

GEORGE E. GAY, Superintendent of Schools, *Haverhill, Mass.*

"The Superintendent's Opportunity and Obligation to Assist His Teachers in Both Instruction and Management."

GERTRUDE EDMUND, Principal Training School for Teachers, *Lowell, Mass.*

"The Training and Improvement of Young Teachers during Their Period of Probation."

CHARLES MCKENNY, President State Normal School, *Milwaukee, Wis.*

DAVID FELMLEY, President Illinois State Normal University.

JOHN R. KIRK, President State Normal School, *Kirksville, Mo.*

"The Relation of Academic Professional Preparation before Entering Service to Satisfactory Progress under the Superintendent or Principal."

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT, University of Wisconsin.

"The Educational Seminar for Teachers in Service."

GEORGE A. BROWN, Editor *School and Home Education*, *Bloomington, Ill.*

"The Use of the Educational Press by Superintendents and Principals."

H. A. HOLLISTER, High-School Visitor, University of Illinois.

"The Advancement of Teachers through Supervision."

JOHN W COOK, President State Normal School, *DeKalb, Ill.*

"The Importance of Abundant Life, Energy, and Spirit."

F. B. DYER, Superintendent of Schools, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*

"The Cincinnati Plan."

General discussion: Superintendent H. M. Slauson, Ann Arbor, Mich., Professor George D. Strayer, Columbia University, and Superintendent Charles E. Chadsey contributed some valuable additions to the general discussion.

The discussion carried far beyond the time for closing, but still there were several who were unable to present the special consideration of the problem they had come prepared to give.

II. BUSINESS

The President called attention to the importance of members having their public or school libraries buy the bound sets of the *Yearbooks*. Each of the two sets now bound covers a period of five years, and can be had at cost of associate membership for period covered.

The following committees were announced:

(I) COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDIT

C. A. HERRICK, director of School of Commerce, Central High School, Philadelphia, *chairman*.

PAUL H. HANUS, professor of education, Harvard University.

VIRGIL PRETTYMAN, principal Horace Mann High School, Teachers College, Columbia University.

A. S. WHITNEY, professor of education, University of Michigan.

W. J. S. BRYAN, principal Central High School, St. Louis.

W. A. SCOTT, director course in commerce, University of Wisconsin.
FRANK V. THOMPSON, principal High School of Commerce, Boston.

(2) COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

J. STANLEY BROWN, superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.,
chairman.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY, professor of education, Leland Stanford Jr. University.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

A. CASWELL ELLIS, associate professor of the science and art of education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

(Vacancy for fifth member not filled.)

Persons elected to active membership were:

BIRD T. BALDWIN, professor of psychology and education, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.

JULIAN A. BURRUSS, director of manual arts, Richmond Public Schools, Richmond, Va.

JACOB H. CARFREY, superintendent of schools, Wakefield, Mass.

MARGARET GIDDINGS, supervisor of kindergartens and first grades, Denver, Col.

H. E. GILES, superintendent of schools, Hinsdale, Ill.

JOSEPH M. GWINN, professor of education, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

SAMUEL E. HARWOOD, professor of pedagogy and training, Southern Illinois State Normal University, Carbondale, Ill.

WALTER R. HATFIELD, public school principal, Chicago, Ill.

EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK, head of department of psychology and child-study, State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.

HARRIET M. MILLS, New York Froebel Normal, New York City.

HARVEY C. MINNICH, dean State Normal College, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

JOSEPH ROSIER, superintendent of schools, Fairmount, W. Va.

LYNN M. SAXTON, instructor in City College, New York City.

C. E. WARRINER, superintendent of schools, Saginaw, Mich.

ARCHIBALD C. WILLISON, superintendent of schools, Allegany County, Cumberland, Md.

HENRY S. YOKER, superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Wis.

The committee on nominations, consisting of Walter E. Ranger, F. Louis Soldan, William E. Hicks, Frederick E. Bolton, and Edward F. Buchner, reported as follows:

For president—CHARLES MCKENNY, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

For secretary-treasurer—MANFRED J. HOLMES, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

For members of the Executive Committee—C. F. CARROLL, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N. Y., and W. S. SUTTON, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

The report of the nominating committee was adopted and the nominees declared elected.

Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle was appointed chairman of a committee to make such arrangements as might be necessary for a joint session with the Education Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, to be held at Baltimore next December.

III. FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1907

Ordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	\$204.46	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I, postage, etc.....	20.39	
To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	328.73	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II, postage, etc.....	23.50	
	<hr/>	\$577.08

Debtor to Secretary's Expenses:

To clerk, office help, and supplies.....	\$103.30	
To traveling expenses, including Los Angeles trip.....	185.30	
To printing and stationery.....	44.50	
To postage and express.....	56.30	
To telephone and telegraph messages.....	6.25	
To salary as appropriated by Society.....	100.00	
	<hr/>	495.65
		<hr/>
		\$1,072.73

Ordinary Income

Credit thru the University of Chicago Press:

By balance in favor of the National Society, Dec. 31, 1906.....	\$ 70.39	
By balance due National Society from sales of books.....	258.99	
	<hr/>	\$329.38

Credit thru the Secretary-Treasurer:

By balance per statement December 31, 1906.....	\$222.51	
By 147 active memberships.....	\$441.00	
By 94 associate memberships.....	94.00	
	<hr/>	535.00
By books and exchange.....	2.47	
	<hr/>	759.98
		<hr/>
		1,089.36
Balance of credits over debits...		\$16.63

Extraordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To reprint from plates 500 copies <i>Third Herbart Yearbook</i> and supplement.....	\$ 77.95	
To reprint <i>First Herbart Yearbook</i> , 600 copies	232.47	
	<hr/>	\$310.42

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT

Between January 1, 1908, and February 17, 1908, receipts from dues have amounted to \$343.00. This somewhat more than covers indebtedness to date. No statement from the University of Chicago Press is available to show sales between these dates. Such statement would no doubt show quite a sum to the credit of the Society.

The National Society is accumulating considerable property and business interests as a desirable foundation for carrying on studies and investigations that call for use of more money than has been available heretofore. The constitution should be amended creating trustees or directors to properly care for these interests.

The property is in *Yearbooks* and plates. The most of the books will ultimately be sold. A safe estimate of the royalty value of these books is over \$3,000.00. There are in addition to this many thousand pages of electrotypes and stereotype plates. The University of Chicago Press has cultivated the general market for the books and the income through the general trade channels is increasing yearly.

THE EIGHTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I

EDUCATION WITH REFERENCE TO SEX
PATHOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC, AND
SOCIAL ASPECTS

BY

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON, PH.D.

Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago, President of Chicago Society of Social Hygiene
Associate Member of American Academy of Medicine

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CHICAGO MEETINGS OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY, FEBRUARY 22 AND 24, 1909

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1909

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Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Secretary-Treasurer

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PREFACE

No apology is made for urging upon teachers, the moral guides of the nation, the duty of helping in the cause of fighting the black plague of the world. A policy of concealment, silence, ignorance, and quackery has borne its monstrous brood of disease, misery, and moral degradation. A false modesty is guilty of much of this giant wrong. There never was a more chivalrous fight for pure women and innocent childhood than that on behalf of which this book is written. Yet, in the present darkened state of the public mind, itself due largely to past ignorance and neglect of medical men, teachers, and pastors, some explanation is necessary of the plan of this study, and evidence will be offered that it is timely and wholly necessary. It has been objected to this study at this time that it diverts the attention of teachers from the consideration of their normal task to exceptional and pathological cases. But this is not a fair statement. The truth is that our schools have professed to teach physiology, hygiene, and morality and have neglected vital factors, the function of elimination of waste and the function of reproduction. Partly in consequence of this neglect we have sexual abuses, excesses, and the plagues of venereal disease. It is high time to recall the teaching profession to its duty, in order that the next generation of parents may be better fitted to rear and educate a wiser and healthier race. The story of pathology is rehearsed only to demonstrate the necessity of a complete education for life. Some good and wise men among our leading educators have seriously questioned the timeliness and prudence of this effort to interest teachers; and they say that others should first break ground and prepare the soil. But who are these others? The physicians? They have already sounded the note of alarm in all their professional magazines. They have organized, in New York, Chicago, and other cities, associations whose purpose it is to lay the facts before parents, teachers, pastors, women's clubs, and legislators. The medical men have done their duty. How long should members of the teaching profession wait? How many more thousands should they see drag their miserable way to physical and moral ruin before

they utter a protest or lend a hand to help? The right time to speak and write and teach is now. For multitudes another ten years of guilty delay would mean disaster. Let him be silent who can with clear conscience.

The first draft of this book was read carefully and approved by Dr. J. M. Dodson, dean of Rush Medical College, Dr. C. P. Small, physician of the University of Chicago, and by Dr. W. T. Belfield, an eminent expert in venereal diseases and secretary of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene. Suggestions of these gentlemen were utilized to improve the text. Dr. Belfield's letter is here reproduced.

CHICAGO, ILL., November 10, 1908

DEAR DR. HENDERSON: Have just finished reading your MS. As you will see when you open the envelope, I took a sheet and started "comments" with references from your pages. But I now feel that the only important comment I can make is an expression of warmest admiration for both matter and manner. I can really suggest no changes that seem to me improvements, beyond the few pertaining to your first pages, already noted.

It is a monograph that will do even you much credit.

Sincerely,

WM. T. BELFIELD

A few encouraging expressions are added because the author really needed cheer where he was obliged to act contrary to the judgment of some men whose opinion he valued and whose approval he would be glad to win.

Ex-Governor W. J. Northen, of Georgia, in an address on "Civic Righteousness in Georgia," before the Georgia Baptist Convention, December 2, 1908, said: "I trust that every citizen who now hears me will study closely the statements in Dr. Henderson's book," and he urges a campaign against that "social institution that has stood for years as an expression of our community life, practically without challenge, and corrupting the morals of men to a most alarming degree."

The paper written for presentation has proved to be scholarly and tactful to our fullest expectancy, considering the nature of its subject matter.
—PROFESSOR HENRY SUZALLO, Teacher's College, Columbia University.

President Charles McKenny, of the Wisconsin State Normal

School and of the Milwaukee society dealing with "social hygiene," says:

I want to thank you and congratulate you on the manuscript. I believe you have done a very great service in its preparation. Its ideals are high, its tone pure, its conviction strong, its facts convincing.

The author has, upon invitation, co-operated with a committee of one of the most influential societies of Chicago, the Chicago Womans' Club, and this volume is in part a response to their appeal to all citizens for help:

The preservation of the moral, mental, and physical health of your own and the interests of social order will enlist your philanthropic efforts in this world-wide movement of moral and physical portent.

A man well known in work for boys and young men writes of the need of this effort:

I should like to say, however, that there are two things which seem to me very important for parents and teachers to realize. The first is, that the existence of any such district or section which is unrestrained, as this West Side district was, is an open menace to the physical as well as the moral welfare of the young men and boys of the community. Indeed, the attention of some of us was called to the district by the death of a 16-year-old lad, as a direct result of an evening spent in that section. The other point is that no one is safe. There are many parents and teachers as well, who have the feeling that because they live in a good section of the city or out in the suburbs, their boys are safe from the contaminating influences of a section that is so degraded as the one of which we are speaking. No more serious mistake could be made. Hundreds of boys who would not deliberately start out to go in a house of ill fame of any class will be led by morbid curiosity, and in crowds, into a section where, as they say to themselves, they can see the sights without going into danger. The first thing they know they are swept off their feet.

Those who conducted the investigations in that section during the last few months found men and boys from all over the city and from some of the best homes in the suburbs thronging the streets. It was a common experience to find from two to three thousand men and boys in that district in a single hour, and they were by no means all of them from the lower class. In a matter of this kind it is certainly well for us all to remember that not one of us is living to himself alone, and that so long as people are ignorant of the terrific dangers involved, someone has neglected his duty.—HERBERT W. GATES.

The dean of women in the University of Chicago expresses this judgment:

Race suicide and divorce are symptoms of a social disorder, doubtless very grave and certainly very evident, whose remedy in my opinion lies in the direction of training both boys and girls for parenthood. . . . If boys were taught the principles of social hygiene and their part in maintaining life upon high levels, I can but believe that with their increased knowledge their moral natures would be aroused and strengthened and the difficulties by which all teachers who deal with young boys are baffled would largely disappear. Without analogous training for girls we cannot expect that . . . good conditions . . . will necessarily produce good mothers.¹

We are simply taking up a line of educational effort which was carried far by the "Philanthropists" of the eighteenth century,² and then long neglected.

The Illuminists discovered and discussed practically all the problems touched in this volume. It is true they had not the scientific equipment which is at our disposal; they did not know the specific germs which cause venereal diseases; they could have improved their instruction by later discoveries in anatomy, embryology, and the laws of evolution. But they had a knowledge of the essential facts of the sexual life, of birth and growth, of the influence of the sexual appetite, and of some of the dangers of prostitution. They knew the value of instruction in preserving youth from vicious conduct, and they gave to knowledge an even more important place than it deserves. In spite of much that is grotesque, coarse, and ridiculous, they left to us many precious suggestions in matters of principle. They were fully aware of the danger of giving instruction about conception, birth, and secret and social vice, and the wise men sought to teach without morbid excitement and premature awakening of curiosity. They studied the problems of feeling in relation to the subject; the cultivation of modesty and shame; the influence of nudity and dress; the preservation of modesty.

They gave careful attention to the management of the appetites, the direction of the will, and the formation of wholesome habits.

¹ Professor Marion Talbot, in a paper before the American Sociological Society, December, 1908.

² Franz Xaver Thalhoffer, *Die sexuelle Pädagogik bei den Philanthropen*, 1907.

They discriminated carefully between the normal and the unwholesome manifestations of sexual life and studied the methods of inhibition and the reinforcement of character by idealistic and religious motives. They availed themselves of the best medical counsel in relation to a régime of hygienic conduct in the control of the lower instincts and impulses. The names of Rousseau, Basedow, Salzmann, and Campe, are connected with this pedagogical study and their contributions have been considered in the preparation of this volume.

For many reasons the subject has been greatly neglected among teachers until medical men alarmed the thoughtful with their discoveries of the ravages of venereal diseases, their prevalence among young men in large towns of Europe and America, and the dangers to women and families from this source. Since ignorance and neglect of proper training are part cause of these evils the professional duty of teachers has been made too plain to permit longer neglect.

An extended treatment of sexual education may give to persons unfamiliar with the situation a wrong impression of the central purpose of the writer. It is the clear and decided conviction of the author that instruction in matters of sex should be a natural part of general education; that it should not be over-emphasized with pupils by calling special attention to it and by isolating it from other studies; that the instruction should be brief, simple, and free from embarrassment. It may seem at a hasty glance that this present discussion violates these principles; but in all fairness the reader must consider that this yearbook is for mature persons who are capable of following an objective and scientific argument without harm, and that it is no more intended for general reading than any professional medical book. The investigation was taken up and the treatise written at the earnest request of the Executive Committee of a society of responsible educators who had the conviction that they could not neglect the subject without failure in their official duty. The writer himself had for some years been compelled by his own university duties, by his position as president of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, and as trustee of schools for erring girls, and by his investigations of pauperism, crime, and industrial conditions in cities, to face this forbidding problem and seek light

for its solution. With men and women who have come in contact practically with the evil consequences of sexual error and wrong, as confidential advisers of youth, no apology for this work will be needed.

Neither completeness nor freedom from error is claimed; but the writer has earnestly sought the best sources of information, has faithfully questioned many professional persons whose knowledge and character entitle them to consideration, has examined a large number of recent works of Europe and America, and, finally, has set down the results in plain, simple, direct speech, with the confident hope that all sensible and earnest teachers will appreciate the difficulty of the subject and weigh the argument without prejudice.

On one side there has been much exaggeration and sensational overstatement, with unreasonable alarm, and not seldom, especially in certain novels, with an appeal to the salacious demands of their customers for pornographic stories.³ Some story makers of "best sellers" find normal life too dull for spicy fiction, and are often inclined to select pathological and monstrous characters as types of modern society, forgetting that the freaks in side-shows on circus days are not specimens of normal and healthy men and women. But on the other hand men and women who have been brought up in sheltered homes and kept free from contact with the depraved, may rest in ignorance of the tragedies which threaten the innocent children in their schools and families, and so unwittingly neglect those measures of precaution which an instructed and conscientious school official would take if he knew the facts.

Young people who are secretly going astray rarely make confidants of teachers; when trouble comes they seek a physician who, like any faithful father-confessor, buries their story under professional confidence. They are fortunate if they do not fall into the hands of some miserable charlatan who both corrupts and robs them. It is not surprising that many teachers, even of long experi-

³Dr. Howard A. Kelly (*Medical Gynecology*, p. 292) uses a homely illustration to impress the danger of exaggeration: "On all sides of such questions one must beware of exaggeration. 'The diff'rence,' says the astute Dooley, 'between Christyan Scientists an' doctors is that Christyan Scientists think they-se no such thing as disease, an' doctors think there ain't annythin' else.'"

ence, should be unacquainted with these hidden evils. In the course of preparation of these pages about 390 letters were sent to superintendents of schools in towns and cities throughout the United States. Forty-two replies were received; neglect of the others is due to various causes. In answer to the question: "Do you personally know of cases of illicit sexual intercourse by high-school pupils?" the replies indicated that 19 knew of 84 cases of boys and 44 cases of girls at some time within the past years of their experience; 13 cases of illegitimate births were reported. The others did not personally know of any such cases. In reply to the question: "Do you personally know of cases of venereal diseases—gonorrhea, syphilis, or other?" the replies showed that 12 knew of 15 cases of boys and 3 cases of girls; in all probability reported to them by physicians. The answers to the questions about the corruption of pupils by persons of vicious behavior and about the effects of secret vice were too vague to furnish any information of value. This imperfect response may be interpreted in various ways. Does it mean that superintendents are not acquainted with the facts? When a superintendent of long experience in a renowned city declares that he never personally knew a single case of the kinds mentioned, is that proof that none or few occurred? Does it mean that superintendents fear to offend their constituencies? Does it imply that they dislike to touch the subject? Does their silence or their testimony prove that high-school morality is what every patriotic American would like to have it? One explanation is obvious enough: high-school pupils are from the better families and have care and breeding above the average youth. It is also true that lads of high-school age are not yet supplied with money to spend on harlots. The writer believes from considerable observation and inquiry that our youth in high schools are, generally speaking, under the sway of influences which protect them at this age from the baser forms of vice.

This optimistic interpretation, however, is somewhat discounted by the suggestion of a high medical authority who was asked for an explanation: "That superintendents' claim that high schools do not offer a problem can be refuted by almost any broad-minded instructor in them; also by college physicians' experiences with *entering freshmen*."

We must turn to physicians, dispensaries, and hospitals for our knowledge on this subject; and their evidence, so far as it is accessible, will be presented.

Most of the children leave public schools before the period of storm and stress. Vicious, enfeebled, and perverted children are expelled and deprived of education or sent to reform schools. Only the selected and ambitious youth from fairly cultivated families go through high school. It is not at all strange, therefore, that many superintendents and principals should be ignorant of the extent of the venereal peril and seem inclined to be incredulous when medical men reveal the facts.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

I am sure that the evil is of sufficient importance to justify our thought on the matter. If there was general publicity and concerted action I am sure great good might be done. M.

This is a delicate matter. With young children it must be attended to by parents. The influence of societies must be to arouse parents as to the seriousness of the subject, rather than to reach the children directly. Discreet teachers may co-operate, and with the consent of parents may give the necessary instruction. With children in the upper grades and high school the topic should be treated in books on physiology and hygiene, in a simple, clear, direct, and authoritative way. These portions of the book need not be taken up in class, but it is certain that all children will read them. I have had fairly authoritative information that there is great prevalence of venereal disease among college students. N. H.

Teaching should be through elementary biology or nature-study. Have straightforward talks to the girls by wholesome lady teachers—to the boys by a strong, clean male teacher, and lectures by physicians. P.

I have no personal knowledge such as the inquiries suggest. B.

I think facts should be taught in connection with science at high-school age, orally. P.

I advise required biology for one year in all high schools; nothing else. I went to medical school two years and have had my eye on this ever since. Sex teaching by celibate men and women is absurd, childish, and impossible. The subject is for parents only. Children, I think, must not be given books to read alone. It induces masturbation. God knows things are bad enough, but America is not yet like Europe. W.

I am sorry to say we do not teach these important facts. A.

The superintendent knows nothing wrong in this city and said he would not teach anything on the subject. E.

Great care is necessary to avoid aggravating the evil in the case of children and early youth. The high-school teacher in physiology can give instruction to adolescents better than anyone else. He approves the circulars of the State Health Department of Indiana and thinks they could be handed to high-school students after a talk by the teacher of physiology. He knows a few cases of scandal. K.

[To instruct children he knows of no way except by plain instruction by parents. In high school, botany, biology, and physiology are good means of teaching.] I am deeply interested in this study; we all need light on the subject. At present I think the whole subject of sexual hygiene is left to the home, where it is greatly neglected. In the high schools something should be done where the homes neglect the matter. The question is how and what. R.

Instruction of children should be by parents in the home. Instruction of youth should be in the science work in the high school where sexes can be segregated. [He approves the books: *What a Boy Should Know* and *What a Girl Should Know*. The subject is best taught early by parents or teachers of segregated pupils.] A.

There are many suspicions floating around, but no accurate information. The outlook is to me as if much of this should be talked among parents; first at mothers' meetings and fathers' meetings to prepare them for such sex teaching as this circular suggests. I have not seen anything printed which I thought suitable to put in the hands of the young. G.

[He says that the subject is generally avoided by teachers and that he knows of no suitable publications for children and youth.] C.

In this city we have separate high schools for boys and girls. Some years ago a teacher of physiology, who was a graduate in medicine proposed to give talks to the boys on the use and abuse of the sexual organs. Before doing so he wrote to the parents of the boys asking permission and explaining what he proposed to do. His request was met with a storm of indignant protest and he was forced to abandon his effort. [This superintendent thinks that talks to the boys by the teacher who has the confidence of the pupils is the best method. For boys a male teacher—for girls a female teacher.] L.

I am glad you have taken this matter up. I hope you will learn that the scare-heads of the press are unwarranted. Certainly among high-school boys and girls in New England these evils are almost unknown. Some principals have lectured to pupils on this abuse. I doubt the value of such work. All the books are of very doubtful value, I fear they excite lust. H.

[Recommends talks to high-school boys by the principal of the school and to high-school girls by woman physicians and instructors in gymnasium.]
S.

In my opinion this work should reach the parents. The subject in the schools is attended by many and almost insuperable difficulties. The parent is the proper one to reveal these things to the children. F.

I do not know. I am deeply ignorant on all these matters. S.

[The superintendent has never known of a case of sexual immorality in his schools. The answers are based on considerable experience as high-school teacher and principal.] I am of the opinion that conditions are not so bad as many people attempt to show them. [He gives no suggestions for instruction, evidently thinking that none are necessary.] B.

Children ought to be looked after by parents. Wise teachers can give enough instruction. For children at the age of puberty hygienic instruction by occasional talks may be given. For youth more can be done than has yet been done, especially in connection with biology. We have had talks by physicians for boys. K.

About puberty instruction should be general and can be given by the parent or one in a similar relation. S.

Children are best taught by mothers, not teachers, by telling the stories, in a beautiful way before they get information in a gross way. Books should be used by parents or prescribed with the parents' consent. Do not try to get this done through schools; let parents and the churches deal with it. Would you want a teacher to talk about this matter with your boy or girl and in the presence of many others? Parents are getting to be more negligent and your efforts should be toward educating parents in the manner of presenting these important matters to their young. Parents must not abdicate their parenthood entirely to teachers. We are drifting too much that way. The *American Motherhood*, the *Ladies' Home Journal*, and other publications are fast educating mothers on this subject. W.

Instruction should be given by parents to children, especially by mothers to their daughters. Youth may be taught by lectures given to students, the girls and boys being in separate classes. I do not know any publications on

the subject that do not need some expurgating. Should be glad to know of any that do not need this. I believe morality the strongest element in appealing to students, that is those we are trying to teach, next comes healthy bodies connected with happiness. M.

Intelligent mothers can do more than all others. [He recommends the "Self and Sex Series."] A.

Children cannot be taught in the schools. Private talks are used for youth. In cases of later adolescence there is no occasion for calling special attention to it. I should avoid suggestive books. Have little knowledge, but have used a few talks in some cases. E.

We unfortunately give no instruction on sex questions. [As to books, replies: "Am not posted."] B.

I have had so little contact with such evils that I have given little study to this subject. Sorry not to be able to suggest even one book on the subject. W.

No doubt some of the evils mentioned here occur, but personally I have no knowledge of any of them. S.

No direct reference to such subject has been made in any systematic way. I am not familiar with the publications. D.

Your letter making inquiry in reference to certain diseases in our schools has been received. In reply I would say, that we do not get into contact with such cases as you describe. R.

The usual sex books are poor indeed. Talks by the right person at the right time may do good. I do not know of any ideal book; wish I did. The one I like best is Burt Wilder's *What Young People Ought To Know*. T.

On all these problems I am at sea. R.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS OF PHYSICIANS

In my private practice as a genito-urinary specialist I see very few cases of acute gonorrhoea. Boys and young men first go to a drug store or use some remedy suggested by a friend. Later they go to a general practitioner, and only the cases that they do not cure come to a specialist. I believe that boys and girls at the age of puberty should be carefully taught the anatomy or physiology of the sexual organs and the diseases that follow abuse or which may be contracted. I think this can best be done by talks illustrated by charts. I am much interested in the subject and have suggested such talks to some good people who think it ought to be

done, but will not take the responsibility of starting the matter. They would regard such things as not proper. W.

[Recommends segregation of prostitution and favors instruction. Thinks that boys should be taught by the father and girls by the mother under the direction of a physician.] The reading of properly prepared books of which I do not know any published entirely satisfactory. E.

In my opinion father and mother should not permit children to go anywhere after 8:00 or 9:00 P. M. After the fourteenth or fifteenth year parents should carefully explain sexual hygiene to their children. M.

[Recommends publications of the Social Purity League.] G.

[Recommends examination of the sanitary conditions of the houses of prostitution, because the prostitute is not as liable to be infected or to infect somebody else if she is clean and in good general health. Special attention should be paid to young girls who just start that kind of a life because their infections are worse and they attract more males. Forbid the owners of such houses to hire a physician to look after their girls. Recommends examination of children in schools and instruction of the mothers, because the mother needs instruction most and she stands nearest to her offspring.] B.

A WOMAN PHYSICIAN, HEAD OF AN IMPORTANT HOSPITAL

My practice is mostly in a maternity hospital and about 25 per cent of all cases handled have gonorrhoea either in acute or chronic state. We exclude acute cases when possible. We have at least half or more of married women from good respectable families nearly all unconscious of their malady.

My opinion on the regulation of prostitution is similar to the regulation of saloons. Get rid of them as early as possible by the education of the young as to their evil results. While they exist make them as unprofitable as possible by expensive fines and removals. A business that moves its location frequently loses trade. No regulation that is not seeking for an extermination of these things is worth considering.

Parents should be the first teachers of the young on sexual hygiene. It should come easily with the care of the body and the explanation made of the birth of babies and animals which they learn of in the course of family events. The teacher in school should take up the anatomy and physiology of reproduction as the child progresses at the twelfth or fourteenth year or even earlier when possible, by means of plants, etc. The high-school pupils should be taught something of venereal diseases by special lectures in separate classes and the story of human reproduction must be

made clear, and the young mind may be impressed as in a religious appeal. Each high school should have such an instructor and in large cities one speaker can instruct all of the schools, the parents first being asked to listen to the talk and after hearing it shall decide whether or not they wish their children to sit for it. All academies and young people's organizations should be presented with such a lecture. The consequences of improper sexual relations should in all instances be made known to pupils of the high-school age and hinted at in the presence of younger children. In giving the lecture to parents first, they will be instructed often where they would be left ignorant, if they had not heard the talk, of the very things which their children need to know in order to fear the consequences in loose associations. A stricter chaperonage of both boys and girls in the high-school age should be urged upon American parents. D.

[Thinks that prostitution should be under state supervision and segregation. Instruction should not be given to children in school or in groups, but by father and mother if the child is sensible, or by the family physician if the child is easily led or nervous.] I believe men should be as chaste as women and that this can be accomplished by education in respect to the moral obligation of high-school and college men.

The condition of things in a reform school for girls may be shown by this statement: Of 1,305 girls admitted since 1895, 363, or 27 per cent. were immoral, but not diseased; 47, or 3 per cent. had been mothers, when they were admitted; 92 or 7.4 per cent had syphilis, and 50 of these had gonorrhoea also; 777 were admitted with gonorrhoea (51.4 per cent.); approximately 58.7 per cent. had venereal diseases when admitted. W.

[Thinks that instruction should be given in the family by parent of the same sex as the child; and in school by special instruction of a physician in classes of one sex only.] B.

[Thinks that prostitutes should be licensed and inspected and kept in a "red-light" district. As to method of instruction thinks no one method will do for all. There are as many good methods as there are men and women in the world.] W.

I think a well-instructed mother should be the instructor of her children and the instruction should be given as early as the child mind expands and his curiosity is aroused. A.

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL LOSS FROM SEXUAL VICE. ECONOMIC ASPECTS

The notorious indifference and neglect of this subject by otherwise earnest and thoughtful people who desire the common welfare must be largely due to the general ignorance of the damage which the nation suffers from the various forms of sexual vice. The attitude of the unclean is easily explained; they are ready to sacrifice others and themselves to appetite and lust, and they become deaf to argument and appeal in consequence of the debasing influence of immoral indulgence and corrupting companionships. The present study seeks to present ascertained facts to a group of persons known to be devoted to public service and open to the influence of arguments drawn from careful and sober presentation of the real conditions. The volume is not intended for circulation except among mature and professional persons whose duties compel them to deal daily with young people who are exposed to temptation and peril. Plain speech, technical only when necessary, will be used throughout.

We have used well-authenticated sources, and the conclusions stated are drawn up, so far as possible, in the exact language of medical authorities in responsible positions, and the whole carefully revised by physicians competent to discern and correct error in language or interpretation.

It must be remembered that the contemporary judgments of competent physicians, specialists in the particular field, rest upon a wide observation of facts and are inductions from a vast experience, as well as from laboratory and clinical experimentation. These physicians of scientific training would be the last men to affirm that investigation is closed, that all is known, and that nothing remains for study. But for the laity the consensus of opinion of the medical men at a given time is the most accurate statement of the facts which is accessible to them. And it is remarkable that, on our present subject, there is practical unanimity in regard to the physical facts with which we have to deal, much as men differ in

regard to the more complicated and involved problems of social policy and methods of popular education.

This is not a medical work and no more details will be given than are absolutely necessary to make teachers aware of the nature, causes, and effects of the principal venereal diseases which, in the opinion of the greatest physicians, threaten the welfare of the race.

I. MEDICAL AUTHORITIES UPON THE NATURE OF THE SOCIAL DAMAGE FROM SEXUAL VICE

The chief physical evils arising from ignorant or wilful perversion of the sexual functions are those of masturbation, excessive indulgence of the sexual appetite even in marriage, and the venereal diseases caused primarily and principally by prostitution. Of the comparatively rare pathological and abnormal cases little need here be said; they are to be treated by physicians rather than by teachers. Yet sexual perverts are occasionally discovered, not only in reform schools but also in ordinary public schools, and it is exceedingly important that medical inspectors find them out before they corrupt normal children.¹

SECTION I. *Physical and psychical disturbances caused by masturbation*² and by excessive indulgence of the sexual appetite, even in normal marital relations.—Here also may be mentioned the danger of precocious indulgence and illegitimacy. (a) Self-abuse is the cause of disorders when it is frequently repeated and long continued. But false and exaggerated statements are frequently made current by quack doctors who become rich by advertising their nostrums after exciting the terror of youth. Medical authority can be cited for a sober and reliable description of the facts, although there is a wide range of variation due to individual differences in constitution, vitality, occupation, and temperament. (b) Excessive indulgence in sexual appetite, without exposure to venereal diseases, may lead to physical and mental disorders of a grave character, both in illicit intercourse and in marriage. We exclude illicit intercourse

¹ These inherited pathological conditions are discussed with authority by R. von Krafft-Ebing, *Psychopathia Sexualis*, translated by F. J. Rebman from the 12th German ed.; Forel, *Die sexuelle Frage*; cf. G. F. Lydston, *The Diseases of Society*.

² Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 291 ff.

from consideration as ethically rejected. The individual differences are so great that no rule can be laid down as to the measure of temperance in marital intercourse. Good sense in normal physical conditions is a fairly safe guide, and in morbid states of health a physician should be consulted.

Precocious sexual intercourse and illegitimacy.—The sexual appetite awakens with puberty, especially in boys; long before knowledge, experience, and reason provide the moral nature with motives for self-control and inhibition of impulse to gratification. The writer, as a member of the management of a refuge for young girls, is compelled to learn of frequent cases where the poor creatures become mothers without being aware of the dangers, miseries, and disgrace to which they expose themselves. It is incredible to a person reared wholly in a normal family life that there should be so many victims of ignorance and parental neglect. In a certain number of instances mothers deliberately corrupt their own daughters and hire them out to vice before conscience has emerged.³

SECTION 2. *Venereal diseases, especially gonorrhea and syphilis.*—It will be sufficient for our purpose to present medical authority in relation to the two most important and dangerous diseases which begin in the irregular and immoral relations of prostitution, but which are communicated also to innocent persons by various modes of contact. The two most distinctive of these diseases are gonorrhea and syphilis.

Dr. William Osler, in a recent article on preventive medicine, describing the infectious diseases which are the greatest scourges to the human race, such as cholera, yellow fever, smallpox, pneumonia, tuberculosis, leprosy, etc., says of the group of venereal diseases:

These are in one respect the worst of all we have to mention, for they are the only ones transmitted in full virulence to innocent children to fill their lives with suffering, and which involve equally innocent wives in the misery and shame. . . . Physicians and the public have each solemn duties in this matter.⁴

³ Antonio Marro, *La puberté*, chap. xxi.

⁴ Cf. Dr. Prince Morrow, in a pamphlet of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

Gonorrhea.⁵—The cause of gonorrhea is a micro-organism discovered by Neisser in 1879.

The modern period of our knowledge of gonorrhea dates from the discovery of the gonococcus. At the present day we recognize that the gonococcus is the sole pathogenic agent of gonorrhea in men and women, and that the source of the infection is in the immense majority of cases a chronic or latent gonorrhea.⁶

As to the effects of this disease we again quote from the same author (p. 83):

Instead of gonorrhea being limited to the genito-urinary tract, as was formerly supposed, its morbid action is now recognized as being much more extensive, not infrequently radiated to important visceral organs. As the result of modern investigations it may positively be affirmed that the gonococcus is susceptible of being taken up by the blood vessels and lymphatics and that it may affect almost every organ of the body. The premerential infection is directed to the serous structures of the body. Staining and culture experiments have demonstrated its presence not only in the ovaries, tubes, and peritoneal cavity, which it reaches through progressive invasion of the intermediate membranes, but also in the brain and cord, the endocardium, the pleura, the liver, spleen, kidneys, the joints and tendon sheaths, and periosteal, to which it is carried by the blood vessels and through the peripheral capillaries to the skin.

The number, variety, and gravity of these systemic localizations have led to the serious consideration of the question whether gonorrhea is not to be classed as a constitutional affection—whether these remote effects are to be considered as only occasional and exceptional metastatic complications, or whether there does not actually exist in all cases a latent infection which is only manifest by those systemic localizations in grave cases or in individuals specially predisposed.

As to the effects of gonorrhea on woman we quote from Morrow again (p. 172):

All observation shows that pregnancy is the worst thing that can happen to a woman suffering from cervical gonorrhea. It is equivalent to preparing the soil for the culture bed of dangerous seed which might not

⁵We cite the important work of the distinguished physician, Dr. Prince Morrow, *Social Disease and Marriage* (1904). But several other important works have been consulted, among them *Medical Gynecology*, by Dr. H. A. Kelly (1908).

⁶Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

otherwise find conditions favorable for their germination and growth. If the woman becomes pregnant, it may terminate in abortion or premature accouchement. At best she will probably produce but one child, which is fated to undergo during its passage into the world inoculation with gonococci which may destroy the eyes, and with what consequences to the mother? We have seen that gonorrheal germs become multiplied and exalted in virulence by their cultivation in the lochial fluid. They rapidly invade the body of the uterus, ascend to the annexial organs, with all the consequences of salpingitis, oophoritis, peritonitis, etc. The essential condition of cure is that it should be seen in the early stage, before infection of the uterus and annexial organs takes place. When it reaches the appendages the general opinion is that it is incurable except by radical operation.

A German physician, Dr. Max Gruber, tells of a young woman known in his practice, who went on a wedding journey to Rome a blooming bride and returned broken and withered. The bridegroom had taken gonorrhoea and infected her. The doctor adds in justifiable wrath, "a man who *consciously* acts like that is a damned monster." He adds:

But most men do not imagine that they are affected by gonorrhoea, do not imagine that they are to blame when the wife quickly begins to grow ill and sink after marriage, and they believe they have had an invalid wife hung on their necks. The poor suffering woman must listen to reproaches and she grieves at heart that her sickness is a trouble to her dear spouse! How are such terrible misfortunes, such errors possible?"¹

The offspring of the mother who suffers from gonorrhoea is frequently infected and caused to suffer. Who that is capable of remorse or pity would refuse to be turned away from sexual vice by such a description of fact as that given by physicians?

The child in its passage through the maternal parts is compelled to undergo a veritable baptism of virulence. In the course of its passage the face of the child, and especially the eyes, are liable to be soiled with the uterine, vaginal, and vulvar liquids containing gonococci. The opening of the eyes of the infant, occurring as a rule when the child comes into the world, permits the penetration of the secretions into the conjunctival sac. The gonococci find in the delicate mucosa of the eyes a favorable soil for inoculation. . . . After birth the infectious secretion may be carried into the eyes through the intermediary of sponges, wash-cloths, or by the fingers

¹ *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, Vienna, 1905.

of the accoucheur or nurse. When one eye remains uninfected, it may be inoculated with the purulent secretion of the other.

It is estimated that from 10 to 30 per cent. of all blindness is caused by gonorrheic infection. Of all causes of blindness, purulent conjunctivitis is the most powerful factor. According to Neisser there are in Germany at the present time 30,000 blind persons whose loss of sight is due to gonorrheal ophthalmia. In many institutions for the blind no fewer than 60 per cent. of the inmates have lost their sight from gonorrheal infection. In the institutions of Paris the percentage is estimated at 46, Jullien says 80 per cent.; in Switzerland, 20; in Breslau, 13; in this country, from 25 to 50.

As to frequency of occurrence Morrow (p. 112) declares:

In the report of the Committee of Seven, which records 1,941 cases of gonorrhea in women occurring in private practice in this city [New York] in one year, there were found 265 children with purulent ophthalmia. In the same year there were found in one of the eye hospitals of this city 136 cases of purulent ophthalmia.

Various mitigating and preventive means are known and used by physicians, antiseptic washes, treatment of the eyes (Credé method) of the infant; yet even now many children suffer blindness from maternal infection. "At the present day in Germany gonorrhea causes each year about 600 cases of blindness in the new-born."

The dangers of purulent conjunctivitis from maternal infection are not limited to the child. Nothing is more infectious than ophthalmia neonatorum. It often happens that the attendants, the nurse, or the members of the family are infected, and it is to be observed that while the infection may be comparatively benign in the infant and yield readily to the Credé method, with complete conservation of the integrity of the sight, the infection transmitted to the attendants most often results in a virulent inflammation which may entirely destroy the eyes.⁸

Further, we must consider the dangers of contact and diffusion of this dread disease even among the innocent.

The virus of gonorrhea may be transferred by means of any indifferent object upon which it has been deposited and inoculated when brought into contact with a mucous surface susceptible to its action.

Numerous well-authenticated cases of water-closet infection have been recorded. Rossolimos cites cases in which it was derived from the night-vase, towels, etc.⁹

⁸ Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 116.

⁹ *Ibid.*

Douches, tubes, fingers, thermometers, towels, sponges may be the medium of transmitting the virus. One of these classes of contagion is called from its localization "vulvovaginitis." The innocent victims of this form of contagion are usually children from two to six years of age. It may be present in the newborn or at any age below puberty. In the report of the Committee of Seven there were found 218 cases of vulvovaginitis in private practice in New York City among 1,941 cases of gonorrhea in women.

It [vulvovaginitis] has been found in hospitals for children to be one of the most insidious and persistent infections, and one of the most difficult to stamp out, with which physicians have to deal.¹⁰

This statement is confirmed by facts furnished the writer by Dr. W. A. Evans, Commissioner of Health of the city of Chicago. The public bath may be the medium of communication. Various diseases and disorders may be caused by this form of the malady.

In respect to the cure of gonorrhea, it is very important for the moral teacher to avoid all statements which are not confirmed by experience and by medical authority. The plain, unvarnished truth is most effective, and the educator who, for the sake of frightening his pupil from evil ways, resorts to falsehoods or even questionable assertions, loses his influence. For these reasons it seems wise to set down here the conclusions of experts in respect to the curability of this most common of venereal diseases.

Taking the experience of the leading genito-urinary specialists in this country and Europe as developed by the results of the investigations of the Committee of the American Medical Association, six months may be accepted as the average duration of treatment of chronic gonorrhea.¹¹

The *methods of cure* do not belong here; that subject is in the hands of the medical adviser who should always be consulted and his counsels faithfully followed. Quacks should be avoided.

The widely prevalent notion that gonorrhea is a trivial disease, not more serious than an ordinary cold, cannot be too strongly combated. Every young man and woman should know its serious character and terrible possibilities, and the vital importance of consulting a reputable physician at the earliest possible moment after gonorrheal infection is suspected.¹²

¹⁰ Dr. J. M. Dodson.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

This judgment of a distinguished physician has been enforced and emphasized by numerous other medical men who have been consulted in the preparation of this chapter.

Gonorrhea frequently unfits a young man for marriage and makes him a plague and a curse to wife and children. This is evidently a serious part of our problem. The danger of communicating a dreadful and destroying disease to an innocent bride is appalling to any man who has any sense of honor, moral responsibility, or religion remaining in him. Physicians insist upon extreme caution. Gonorrhea is sometimes cured, but the gonococci may survive in the system long after the cure seems to be complete. Morrow quotes the authority of Janet:

I would demand an entire year without secondary infection. Even at the risk of being called a pessimist, I would impose this delay upon gonorrheics. The enormous number of matrimonial uterine affections shows that heretofore we have been too indulgent in this regard. Metritis, salpingitis, and grave operations are the future of these unfortunate wives who had hoped to find happiness in marriage. It is time to react, to consider gonorrhea as at least equal to syphilis from the point of view of conjugal relations.

A quotation from Jullien (*Blénorrhagie et mariage*, cited by Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 169) is apt:

When the responsibilities are well examined it is often to the negligence or ignorance of the doctor they must be ascribed. If he has made an insufficient examination, if he has been satisfied with a rapid inspection, or if deceived by false traditions, he has advised marriage in order to cure the gleet, he alone is guilty. To tabulate all the calamities which follow this fatal carelessness would be to write the endless martyrology of marriage, the saddest page I know.

Most authorities maintain that the disease may be eradicated by persistent treatment conducted over a long period of time. Every individual who has once had gonorrhea should be assumed to be infected until the contrary has been proved. . . . The poor, half-cured victims of gonococcus infection are a menace to the community and a stain on the fair name of the medical profession.¹²

One branch of this investigation has special interest for all

¹² Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 362, 373.

teachers, especially to those who give instruction in special classes and schools for the blind.¹⁴

REPORTS FROM SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND, 1907

Schools for the Blind	No. of New Admissions	No. Blind from Oph. Neonatorum	Percentage
New York State School for the Blind	13	4	30.7
Penn Inst. for the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.	27	9	33.33
Institute for the Blind, Austin, Tex.		(Not definite—about 10.)	
Perkins Institute and Mass. School for the Blind	43	13	30.00
Colorado School for the Blind, Colorado Springs	7	3	42.8
Western Penn. Inst. for Blind, Pittsburg, Pa., (Percentage of total number in school, 31.37).....	28	8	28.57
Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis.....	19	6	31.57
State Board of Education for the Blind, Hartford, Conn., (since creation of board in 1893, 34.74).....	8	1	12.50
State School for the Blind, Columbus, Ohio (Reduction of usual percentage and as low as at any time in last 12 years).....	61	6	9.83
Maryland School for the Blind (percentage of total number in school in 1905, 25.50).....	13	4	30.77
Ontario Inst. for Blind, Brantford, Ont. (Percentage of total number in school, 24.7).....	23	5	21.74

The average then of the new admissions in the fall of 1907 to the ten schools in which exact records were kept and representing eight states and the province of Ontario was 25.21 per cent., or one-quarter of the whole number, needlessly blind.

That these are not unusual results is shown by the following report from the Pennsylvania School for the Blind for the past eight years.

Per cent.	Per cent.
1900..... 11 out of 25=44	1904..... 15 out of 56=25.00
1901..... 10 out of 26=35	1905..... 21 out of 42=50.00
1902..... 9 out of 39=23	1906..... 12 out of 38=31.00
1903..... 14 out of 50=28	1907..... 9 out of 27=33.33

The average percentage of these eight years is 33.36 per cent. of the whole number admitted. As this enormously high proportion of blindness due to ophthalmia neonatorum is found in states maintaining the highest standards of medical education and general sanitation, there is no doubt whatever that when exact statistics can be obtained at least as large a percentage due to this cause will be found elsewhere throughout the country.

Widespread knowledge concerning ophthalmia neonatorum and its dangers is of vital social importance. Helen Keller voices a very proper public sentiment when she says:

"The problem of prevention should be dealt with frankly. Physicians

¹⁴ See "Report of the Committee on Ophthalmia Neonatorum," *Journal of the American Medical Association*, May 23, 1908, Vol. I, pp. 1745-49 (Dr. F. Park Lewis, Chairman).

should take pains to disseminate knowledge needful for a clear understanding of the causes of blindness. The time for hinting at unpleasant truths is past. Let us insist that the states put into practice every known and approved method of prevention and that physicians and teachers open wide the doors of knowledge for the people to enter in. The facts are not agreeable reading. Often they are revolting. But it is better that our sensibilities should be shocked than that we should be ignorant of facts on which rest sight, hearing, intelligence, morals, and the life of the children of men. Let us do our best to rend the thick curtain with which society is hiding its eyes from the unpleasant but needful truths.

Syphilis.—We must tread this *via dolorosa* still further in the interest of truth and humanity, and add a brief account of another pest of mankind, slayer of multitudes, itself primarily the issue of immorality. The source of this disease is a micro-organism, and the malady arises primarily from sexual intercourse with prostitutes, although it is also communicated to innocent persons. Let us mass our evidence in relation to the causes and effects of this disease of vice.

While syphilis is a less prevalent disease than gonorrhea, it is much more prolific in sources and modes of contagion, and, in addition, is *susceptible of hereditary transmission*. When syphilis is introduced into marriage it may become the origin of many innocent infections. Not only the wife and the children may be contaminated, but the syphilitic infant may infect the nurse or other members of the family, and the nurse may in turn infect her husband and her own children. Veritable endemics of syphilis have originated in this way. It is this quality of expansiveness, this capacity of morbid irradiation through family and social life, that gives to syphilis its superior significance as a social danger.¹⁵

Syphilis sterilizes and so defeats the social purpose of marriage.

The function of marriage is to create life; the action of syphilis is to damage or destroy life. While syphilis may not materially affect the capacity for sexual intercourse nor impair the power of procreation, it renders the one dangerous by infection, the other deadly through inheritance.

Even when syphilis does not destroy the product of conception it transmits to the offspring a defective organization—the infant comes into the world a blighted being, lacking in development and physical stamina and stamped with inferiority. Syphilis is thus not only a factor of depopulation, but a cause of degeneration of the race.

¹⁵ Morrow, *op. cit.*, pp. 181, ff.

Now, syphilis introduced into marriage often strikes the death knell of such hopes; it is destructive of the mutual love and esteem which should form the basis of marriage. Syphilis distils a double venom; it poisons not only the health but the happiness of the household. It carries in its train not only physical woes, but social misery; often disunion and divorce.

What husband can hope to retain the love and esteem of the wife whom he has dishonored with a shameful disease; of the mother in whose child he has infused the foul taint of the prostitute, which dies before being born, or comes into the world an object of disgust and horror? If he be a man of conscience and sensibility, what remorse he must suffer from his sense of guilty responsibility for the ruin he has wrought!

These pathological consequences and the social miseries they engender are by no means exceptional or uncommon. They are the natural expression of the disease, the sequence of cause and effect, almost inevitable under the conditions created by the marriage relation. Their frequency is far from being appreciated by the laity or even the general medical practitioner. Syphilis wears the protective mantle of shame, of secrecy, and silence, and its ravages, physical as well as social, are concealed from the public view.¹⁸

The conclusions of a long and technical argument, fortified by citations from the highest European and American medical authorities are thus summarized by Dr. Morrow:

RÉSUMÉ AND CONCLUSIONS (IN RESPECT TO SYPHILIS)

From this study of prematrimonial syphilis the following conclusions may be formulated:

1. The two qualities of syphilis which emphasize its important relations with marriage are its contagiousness and susceptibility of hereditary transmission.
2. These qualities are not impressed upon the syphilitic organism indefinitely; as syphilis advances in its evolution the virulent principle gradually becomes extinguished.
3. Specific treatment also exerts a marked attenuating and corrective influence upon the diathesis.
4. Syphilis does not therefore constitute an absolute permanent obstacle to marriage; it is only a temporary bar which may be removed by time and treatment.
5. The decision of the question of the admissibility to marriage of a man with syphilis or with syphilitic antecedents imposes a grave responsibility upon the physician.
6. The physician should consider the proposed marriage solely as a sani-

¹⁸ Morrow, *op. cit.*, pp. 182, 183.

tary problem, the only correct solution of which is that the man should not marry so long as he is capable of infecting his wife or transmitting his disease to his children.

7. The elements which serve for the determination of this question are based partly upon our knowledge of the pathological laws of the disease and largely upon the results of clinical experience.

8. The division of syphilis into secondary and tertiary periods, or that based upon anatomical forms and processes, does not furnish a safe criterion for determining the contagious or non-contagious character of the lesions.

9. The chronological completion of the secondary stage does not always mark the definite disappearance of the virulent principle; clinical experience shows that the late lesion may be exceptionally, but none the less certainly, the source of contagion.

10. The precise date in the evolution of the diathesis when the syphilitic organism undergoes that radical transformation which marks the limit of its contagious or transmissive power does not admit of mathematical expression.

11. It is probable that this limit varies in different cases and that many circumstances contribute to advance or defer it.

12. The type of the disease, the constitutional peculiarities of the patient, the presence or absence of certain conditions which are recognized as factors of gravity in syphilis, the treatment employed, all exert a modifying influence.

13. All these elements should be taken into consideration in deciding upon the admissibility of a syphilitic man to marriage; each case should be studied upon its individual merits.

14. The advanced age of the diathesis, a prolonged immunity from specific accidents and sufficient specific treatment are the surest guarantees of safety.

15. The arbitrary designation of a period of three or even four years as perfectly safe for a syphilitic man to marry, with or without treatment, and irrespective of the character of the diathesis is unwarranted by science or the teachings of experience.

16. While in the immense majority of cases the contagious activity of syphilis and its hereditary transmissibility cease after the third or fourth year, yet well-authenticated observations prove in the most positive manner that these qualities sometimes continue much longer, and may be manifest in the fifth or sixth year of the disease, and even later.

17. The aptitude of syphilitic parents to procreate diseased children may persist after the cessation of all specific manifestations; the contagious state

of syphilis is not, therefore, the exact measure of the duration of hereditary influence; this is especially true of maternal heredity.

18. The curative influence of specific treatment in causing to disappear the organic lesions as well as the functional disorders created by the syphilitic virus is well established.

19. While the preventive action of specific treatment is less pronounced than its curative action, it is hardly conceivable that a treatment which exhibits such incontestable virtue in causing the accidents of syphilis to disappear should not be capable of dominating and destroying the diathesis, if sufficiently prolonged.

20. The value of specific treatment in suppressing, holding in obedience, and finally correcting the hereditary influence of syphilis may be accepted as well established by clinical experience.

21. Clinical observation shows that when there is a cessation of all specific manifestations after the completion of the secondary stage, and this exemption is prolonged during a period of twelve or eighteen months, they are not liable to recur.

22. When the syphilitic diathesis has been subjected to the double depurative action of time and treatment during a period of four years, in the vast majority of cases it is scientifically safe for the syphilitic to marry.

23. This rule is based upon a calculation of probabilities. Medical certainty is not mathematical certainty, and a longer period of delay would afford additional guarantees of safety to the wife and prospective children.

24. In deciding upon the fitness of a syphilitic man for marriage the risks to the personal health of the prospective husband from his disease should always be considered.

25. A menacing character of the diathesis, and especially the existence and history of certain symptoms which point to the implication of the brain, nervous system, or other important organs constitute an express, permanent contraindication to marriage.²⁷

To fortify the argument further the words of Dr. H. A. Kelly may here be cited and reference is made to his discussion:

Two fundamental characters, contagiousness and susceptibility of hereditary transmission, give to syphilis an altogether special importance in relation to marriage. . . . In addition, hereditary syphilis undoubtedly creates a terrain or soil favorable for the reception and germination of tubercle bacilli and perhaps other bacilli. It does this by impoverishing the organism and diminishing the capacity of resistance against microbic invasion.

Syphilis is the only disease transmitted in full virulence to the off-

²⁷ Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 258.

spring, killing them outright or blighting their normal development. From the view-point of race perpetuation syphilis is antagonistic to all that the family represents in our social system. The social aim of marriage is not simply the procreation of children, but of children born in conditions of vitality, health, and physical vigor. The effect of syphilis is so to vitiate the procreative process as to produce abortions, or else a race of inferior beings, endowed with defects and infirmities and unfit for the struggle of life. It is this pernicious effect of syphilis upon the offspring which gives to the disease a dominant influence as a factor in the degeneration and depopulation of the race.

Apart from its hereditary risks, the important relations of syphilis with marriage are emphasized by its quality of contagiousness. Owing to its multitudinous modes of contagion, syphilis, introduced into marriage, often becomes the origin of numerous innocent infections which are communicated in the ordinary relations of family and social life. . . . Even after the dangers of syphilis, from the standpoint of its contagiousness and transmissibility by inheritance, have been silenced by time and treatment, a syphilitic man may be incapacitated for marriage by reason of his personal risks from the disease. Unfortunately, syphilis often yields a late harvest of tabes, general paralysis, and other lesions of the general nervous system—affections for the most part disabling and incurable—which may ruin the patient's health and entirely incapacitate him for the responsible position of the head and support of a family. The existence of such conditions constitutes an express permanent contraindication to marriage.¹⁸

It is the fixed purpose of the author of this volume, as a layman, to set down no fact which does not come directly from a competent medical man of high standing. The illustrations which follow are simply a reprint of Circular No. 3, on "Family Protection," prepared by Dr. W. T. Belfield, secretary of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, and an eminent authority in this field.¹⁹ The cases were furnished him by several physicians. It requires no comment. Its laconic brevity brings out the tragedies implied without waste of words, and it fortifies the statements already made.

The first step toward such protection is general enlightenment as to the *actual frequency of such tragedies* among the newly married. To this end the medical members of this society were requested to furnish instances of such disasters which they had personally observed. Only a few of the

¹⁸ *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 419 ff.

¹⁹ See also his *Man and Woman*, p. 87.

many responses can be summarized in this leaflet. These illustrate the most frequent tragedies resulting from the contamination of the family through venereal disease, namely:

- a) The loss of motherhood, even of life itself.
- b) The mutilation of the wife by surgery to preserve her life.
- c) The loss of eyesight in the new-born infant.
- d) The loss of pecuniary support through the disability of the husband.

1. A girl twenty-two years old married a man of twenty-six. About a month after the wedding the bride was confined to her bed for several days with severe pains in the pelvic region, accompanied with fever (peritonitis); and she remained a semi-invalid from that time. On her return from their European trip five months later she was brought to me for examination. The cause of her illness was found in a gonorrhoeal abscess of each fallopian tube, which rendered her an invalid as well as sterile. Careful treatment produced but slight improvement. Finally a surgical operation was performed and the tubes removed. This greatly improved her health though she is, of course, permanently barren. The husband admitted that he had twice contracted a mild gonorrhoea while at college years before, but considered himself cured. Examination revealed the germs of this disease in him.

2. A bride eighteen years old came to my office with her mother two weeks after her wedding. She was suffering from newly acquired gonorrhoea. After eight weeks of constant treatment, she was apparently well. Her husband had lived "like other men."

3. Several years ago there came under my care a case that I can never forget. The patient was a bride twenty-two years old, a beautiful woman of excellent family. She was suffering from gonorrhoea contracted from her husband, who had supposed himself cured before the wedding. An operation, which offered the only chance of saving her life, was performed. All went well for a few days. Her husband, who had been constantly with her, was called away on urgent business. The patient suddenly became worse and died before his return.

4. A man with gonorrhoea of fifteen months' duration, applied for treatment with the request to cure him in six weeks, as he was bound to get married at the end of that time. After examination the patient was warned that he could hardly expect to be cured by that time. At the end of six weeks permission to marry was refused. The patient disobeyed and married the heiress to a considerable estate. She became contaminated with his disease. Five months after the wedding she was taken to a hospital, operated upon for gonorrhoeal abscess, and died two days after the operation.

5. I am at present attending the bride of a young man who thought he had recovered before his wedding from an attack of gonorrhoea. The young wife has gonorrhoeal peritonitis. She will doubtless recover but is probably permanently sterile.

6. A family consists of a father, mother, and three children; the father is a mechanic, works at night and sleeps during the day. At night the mother and children occupy his bed without changing the bedding. The father contracts gonorrhoea, a druggist prescribes for him on his way home from work. In a few days the baby develops gonorrhoeal inflammation in both eyes, and a girl of six shows the disease in the sexual organs. Both children became infected from the bed polluted by the father.

7. A married man while intoxicated contracted gonorrhoea. His little daughter seven years old, who slept in the same bed with him, developed the disease in both eyes. Careful treatment fortunately saved her eyesight.

8. A young bride was infected with gonorrhoea by her husband, who supposed himself cured before marriage. When her baby came its eyes were infected; and it was saved from total blindness only by most painstaking care by himself and a trained nurse, covering a period of three or four anxious weeks. During the treatment of the little one's eyes, in spite of care and warning, the mother's breast became infected, causing a painful and tedious abscess.

In another case, also of gonorrhoeal inflammation of the young mother, the babe's eyes were infected; within two weeks both were lost, and the child is totally blind. I am sure that the majority of these cases are due to lack of knowledge on the part of the husband, who is not told that the disease may lurk in his deeper parts long after it is outwardly cured.

9. We have in the children's department of the County Hospital numerous cases of gonorrhoea among the children, especially the little girls. The increase of this disease in our children's department has been alarming during the last two years, and we are sometimes unable to trace the source of infection.

10. I believe it very conservative to state that I see each week two cases of gonorrhoea in newly married women, the illness dating from marriage.

11. E. had been most carefully reared coming of ministerial stock for generations past; a young man to whom she had been engaged for three years betrayed her. She came to us two months before her child was born and had never shown any signs of syphilis. The little one, however, was diseased when born, suffered greatly during the four short months of its life, and then died, its little body gradually becoming decayed from the time of its birth.

12. The most pitiful case of inherited syphilis I have known is a girl of eighteen who is just learning to spell "cat" and "dog." Her growth has been stunted and her vision practically destroyed by this inherited disease; and though she has been helped by proper treatment she will always be a loser in the fight of life.

I know two childless women both of whom are disabled because of gonorrhoea contracted from their husbands. One of the men shares the grief of his wife because of the semi-invalidism that he has forced upon her.

13. A young wife gave birth to her first child, a credit to the parents. During her invalidism the husband met a former sweetheart, contracted syphilis from her, and before he became aware of his own infection, contaminated his wife. She developed syphilitic sores in the mouth, and through her kisses infected the child with the disease contracted from her husband.

14. A young man married two years after he had contracted syphilis. Within a year his wife had a spontaneous miscarriage, her child having been destroyed by the taint inherited from the father. A year later she gave birth to a puny child which bore the marks of the same disease.

Soon after the birth of this child the father, who had apparently enjoyed good health, awoke one morning to find his right arm and leg completely paralyzed and his ability to utter words abolished, his paralysis resulting from syphilitic disease of the blood vessels in the brain. He gradually regained his power of speech, and the use of his paralyzed limbs, though unable to earn a living for over a year. During this time the family was dependent for subsistence upon the charity of relatives. He will probably have more trouble from the same cause.

15. A young man who was on kissing terms with several girls, acquired syphilis. Though warned that he could communicate the disease by a kiss, he failed to resist temptation, and implanted the disease on the lip of each of two girls of good family.

16. Six years after acquiring syphilis, during which time he had married and begotten a child, a young man developed locomotor ataxia. The physical and mental disability thereby entailed caused the loss of a good position and bright business prospects; and the present financial outlook for his family is discouraging.

The *majority* of cases of venereal disease acquired before marriage fortunately do not entail such disasters to wives and children. Instances like those just related constitute the exceptions rather than the rule; nevertheless, of the 60,000 blind people in this country, at least 12,000 lost their eyesight at birth through infection of the eyes with the venereal

diseases of the parents. The cases of surgical mutilation and of permanent invalidism of wives; of the barrenness of marriage; of infant mortality before and after birth; of destitution through disease of the brain and nervous system in the family bread-winner—all these also are appallingly frequent results of venereal contamination.

It is therefore apparent that no man who has ever acquired venereal disease should marry until he has secured the assurance of a competent physician that such disease has been eradicated. The difference between an apparent cure and a real cure can be determined only through expert medical examination.

It is equally apparent that the disasters to self, prospective bride, and children which are entailed by the venereal diseases, constitute a risk which no intelligent man should take merely to enjoy the animal pleasures of promiscuous cohabitation—pleasures which are *no more necessary to bodily health than are the joys of drunkenness.*²⁰

The illustrations of these evil consequences might be multiplied indefinitely, and physicians in almost any large town or city can furnish only too many examples in local experience.

Is prostitution necessary to the protection of good women against the assaults of men?—The facts already presented reveal one aspect of the danger to which upright women, who are the vast majority of all women, are exposed in consequence of the existence of the "social evil." Is there any countervailing advantage to them to set over against the demonstrated perils and sufferings? Does not every prostitute by her very presence excite the sexual passion of many boys and men? Does she not win her bread by tempting youth? Is she not driven by the pangs of hunger to invent arts for breaking down moral restraints and the inhibitions of reason? How can the trade of the harlot protect purity? An article on "Education and the Social Evil" by Dr. A. W. Sterling of Atlanta, is summarized in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, April 18, 1908, p. 1306:

Sterling discusses this subject and arrives at the conclusion that continence and pure monogamy are the western ideals. The assertion that prostitution has always existed and always will exist—is, in short, a necessary evil—he answers by pointing out that those who advance this view

²⁰ That venereal diseases inflict injury on innocent wives and children may be seen in L. Duncan Bulkley, A.M., M.D., *Syphilis in the Innocent*, Bailey and Fairchild, New York.

would be as quick as their neighbors to resent the idea that any of their own people should embark in this necessary, and, according to themselves, saving profession. . . . Prostitution, if necessary, cannot be immoral, because it stands to reason that no necessary position in life is immoral. . . . If it is not necessary, enough has been said to show that its effects are so destructive, physically and morally, that it is high time something is done to demolish it.

If we legalize this infamous business, where shall we look to recruit the ever-fading ranks of these poor creatures as they die yearly by the tens of thousands? Which of the little girls of our land shall we designate for this traffic? Mark their sweet innocence today as they run about in our streets and parks, prattling and playing, ever busy about nothing, and earth's only memento of the angels in their guilelessness. Which of them shall we snatch as they approach maturity to supply the foul mart of the insatiable cravings of lust? Perish the thought! Again, we surely would not allow the daughters of our rich men to enter our legalized brothels. The poor man must suffer and be robbed of the flower of his family—the poor man who, Jacob Riis tells us, has no appeal beyond the policeman, and practically no rights in our courts. Sherman said "War is hell," but war is a sweet, a noble, and a choice calling compared with a life in this pit of iniquity. The only way out of the difficulty is to assert that the young girls naturally love this debauched life; but before I believe that you will have to rob me of my experience with women who, for the most part, began by being seduced.—Dr. H. A. Kelly.

Prostitution cannot be called necessary or harmless.

I must confess that I regard masturbation itself far a lesser evil, dangerous and harmful as it is for youth and in excess also for adults. At most it harms only the sinner himself, while those who use prostitution bear also the blame of helping the physical ruin of thousands of unhappy women who are driven into incurable invalidism and early death. For almost all professional prostitutes are gonorrheic and syphilitic, and, even apart from that, most of them by their irregular mode of life, abuse of alcohol, and residence in prison are gradually ruined. In England, according to Tait, prostitutes reach on the average only twenty-five years of age.²¹

"*The sexual necessity.*"—A related question, on which there is considerable difference of opinion among physicians, is whether sexual intercourse is generally necessary to health. What is true

²¹ Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, p. 30.

in this matter and what, therefore, should be the attitude of teachers and counselors of youth on this subject? That sexual intercourse is, for adults, normally desirable from the standpoint of individual health as well as for the existence and welfare of society may be at once frankly asserted. Celibacy could not be the regular mode of life for adults, and marriage at a suitable age may be regarded as best physically and spiritually for the vast majority of healthy people. But this does not mean that sexual intercourse is necessary, as breathing and eating are necessary to life; nor is it fatal and inevitable as gravity, or as the involuntary movements of the heart muscles or the rhythmic secretion of the various glands of the body. Nature has provided a harmless outlet for the secretions of the reproductive system without either masturbation or illicit sexual intercourse.²² The intercourse of the sexes is, apart from the pathological cases of the insane and idiotic, a voluntary act. Alcohol temporarily induces a pathological state when the control of reason and will is broken.

That both men and women can abstain without serious injury to health is demonstrated by numerous examples and by the testimony of competent physicians; and this testimony is so strong that it leaves the arguments addressed to appetite rather than reason and conscience without a foundation.

The same position is taken by the following competent medical authorities: Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, pp. 41, 42, and *Hygiene des Geschlechtslebens*; Hegar, *Der Geschlechtstrieb*; Dr. W. S. Hall, *Reproduction*; Dr. W. T. Belfield, *The Sexual Necessity*; Robert N. Wilson, *The Social Evil in University Life*. Dr. G. F. Lydston (*The Diseases of Society*, p. 331) has a terrible arraignment of this notion of "sexual necessity" in his parable the "Lie of the Wild Oats," and he concludes: "Are not the wild oats of yesterday watered with the tears of today? . . . Wherever immorality, vice, disease, crime, drunkenness, and insanity most thrive, there, if we dig down to the very roots of these evils, we find wild oats the thickest." Here speaks a man who recites facts

²² The seminal emissions which occur at intervals of from a few days to a few weeks, usually during sleep, in healthy continent men, are entirely normal and physiologic, and not evidence of "failing manhood" or "loss of virility," as is blatantly and falsely stated by the advertising quack.—Dr. J. M. Dodson.

from his consulting-room; he knows; no wonder he is sometimes cynical in tone.

II. ECONOMIC LOSS AND WASTE FROM SEXUAL EXCESS AND DISEASE

It is impossible to secure statistical measurements of the extent and material consequences of the social evil in all its forms; but the facts already exhibited carry with them direct proof that economic loss or ruin follows in its wake.

The wage-earning power of working people depends on their industrial efficiency, and this efficiency is impaired by any habits or diseases which lower vitality, shorten life, or hinder the normal growth of a healthy population. Many of the feeble-minded, insane, blind, and deaf which have become a heavy burden upon the finances of modern states have fallen into a state of dependence through inheritance of the effects of vicious indulgence and venereal disease in their parents and more remote ancestors.

The cost of medical treatment by physicians, hospitals, and unscrupulous "specialists" must be enormous. To our national shame be it said, much of this expenditure goes to paid advertisements of the lowest type of doctors in newspapers which are taken into respectable families and supported by the advertisements of great merchants.

Some idea of the economic loss from venereal diseases may be gained by using such statistics as we have. In the Prussian-German army during the years 1873-93 the average annual sickness from these causes was 33.2 per cent. of the active soldiery; in the French army of 1883-93, 43.6 per cent. to 58.9 per cent.; in the army of Austria-Hungary in the period 1869-93, 53.0 per cent. to 81.4 per cent.; in the Italian army 1883-93, 79 per cent. to 104 per cent. In the German navy there were sick in the years 1875-76 to 1888-89, on the average, 127.9 per cent. In the English army it was worse, and in the Dutch army, the ratios rising to 224.5 and 294.1 per cent. If we take all the European armies together we may say that each day seventy to eighty thousand soldiers are treated for venereal diseases and more or less unfitted for duty. What a loss to the power of an army or navy this implies! In the civil population it is bad enough. Only a part of those affected enter hospitals, yet the figures for these are startling enough. In

Prussian hospitals in 1877-99 about 240,000 persons, or 58 per cent. of all patients were treated for venereal disorders. In more northern lands, because greater care is taken, a larger ratio obtains: in Norway in 1859-70 annually 0.86 per cent of the entire population, in Sweden 1.24 per cent., in Denmark 2.03 per cent., in Finland 2.27 per cent. An official inquiry in Prussia, answered by only 63 per cent. of the physicians, showed that on one day, April 30, 1900, about 41,000 persons were treated. It is thought that in all Germany 100,000 were under care of physicians that day. Kirchner estimated the economic loss to Prussia alone from this cause at 90,000,000 marks annually.

In the great cities the situation is worse. In Christiana the average sick in 1859-70 were 7.66 per cent. of population; in Stockholm, 16.04 per cent; in Copenhagen, 25.5 per cent. In Russia where these maladies are rife, it is estimated that 13 to 23 per cent of the population is infected and in some provinces almost all are syphilitic.

In Berlin the number of new cases of syphilis is estimated to be 5,000 each year, in Paris 8,000 to 10,000. On April 30, 1900, the cases of venereal patients reported by physicians were 10 per cent. of the entire population of Berlin. In Copenhagen, where the records are unusually complete, the number of new cases of gonorrhea reported annually is 56,000, or about one-half the population.

Of 8,500,000 persons insured in the sickness funds of Germany 6 per cent., or more than 500,000 are annually afflicted with venereal diseases. In Berlin 3.6 per cent. of the soldiers, 8 per cent. of workmen, 13.5 per cent. of female waiters, 16.4 per cent. of young salesmen, and *25 per cent. of students* in the sickness insurance associations were treated for venereal diseases.²⁸

The frequency of venereal diseases varies with nations, with districts, and especially, with density of population. For example, in Germany, these diseases are more frequent in northern than in southern districts; more prevalent in the northeast than in the west, in cities, than in rural regions. Of the male population of Prussia on April 30, 1900, 28 in 1,000 were infected; in Berlin 142 in 1,000; in cities with over 100,000 inhabitants, 100 in 1,000; in

²⁸ From Dr. Max Gruber, *op. cit.*

cities of over 30,000 inhabitants, 45 in 1,000; in the army, 15 in 1,000. The frequency of these maladies varies also with the social classes. Thus in Berlin, of soldiers in the garrison, 4 to 5 per cent. are annually affected; of wage earners in the central sickness insurance association, 8 per cent.; of female waiters registered in the local sickness insurance association 13.5 per cent.; but the police records show 30 per cent. of same class; salesmen 16.5 per cent.; *students in the sickness insurance association 25 per cent.* The figures for students reveal a very discouraging condition.

Of 12,000,000 persons in the German workingmen's insurance associations about 6 per cent., or 750,000 persons require medical treatment and hospital care at an annual cost of at least six to seven million marks (about \$1,500,000 to \$1,750,000). To this loss must be added the loss of wages and productive labor caused by sickness, weakness, and the physical consequences of the attacks.²⁴

Economic loss implies diminution of the opportunities of culture; and so venereal excesses and diseases both directly and indirectly affect adversely the educational process.

No less than 344 persons were admitted, on an average, for each of the four years, to the asylums in England and Ireland, the predisposing or exciting cause of their insanity being venereal disease.

It is impossible to supply accurate statistics relating to venereal diseases in the United Kingdom, as there is an immense organized hypocrisy and a well-understood conspiracy of silence regarding the subject. If the committees of our voluntary hospitals ceased misleading the public, and would publish the actual causes of the diseases which the patients suffer from, full particulars could be obtained; but it is stated that if they did so, the public would withdraw their subscriptions. It is unfortunate that at present all medical statistics relating to deaths and diseases due to alcoholism and venereal diseases are a source of joke, and are absolutely unreliable and wilfully misleading. Fournier states that of all hospital patients in Paris 15 to 19 per cent. were of venereal origin. Morrow places the percentage at the New York hospitals at 10 per cent. of the total; Lane in London at 33 per cent. of the out-patients; while in continental hospitals the percentage of women suffering from gonorrhoea is from 20 to 25. Prostitution and venereal diseases are interchangeable terms, for there is always venereal disease where there is prostitution.

A reference to the annual reports of the surgeons-general of the British

²⁴ Dr. A. Blaschko, *Die Geschlechts-Krankheiten*, Berlin, 1907.

army and navy give us some idea of the terrible amount of venereal diseases there present. During the year 1901, of 100,811 troops (army) stationed in the United Kingdom, there were 1,936 admissions for primary syphilis; 988, for soft chancre; 1,907, for secondary syphilis; 5,794, for gonorrhoea. That is, 10,625 "admissions" in twelve months. Of the British army in India and of 60,838 troops, there were admitted to hospital 2,021 for primary syphilis; 3,921, for soft chancre; 3,544, for secondary syphilis; 7,303, for gonorrhoea. That is, 16,789 admissions in twelve months. Of European troops stationed in other parts of the Empire (fifteen stations) there were admitted to hospital 655 for primary syphilis; 1,488 for soft chancre; 842 for secondary syphilis; 3,258 for gonorrhoea. In the Royal Navy, with 98,410 afloat, there were 3,293 persons treated for primary syphilis; 2,110 for secondary syphilis, 5,790 for gonorrhoea. That is 11,193 persons.

It is calculated that the army lost 514,855 days' active duty owing to venereal diseases among the troops, the sick rate being about 112.2 per 1,000 men in one year.

Supposing these sailors and soldiers had been suffering from plague, cholera, or smallpox, the daily papers would have spread such facts broadcast, and questions would have been asked in Parliament. But such questions are not asked about venereal diseases, chiefly because we are cowards; we do not wish to save thousands of children from death and disease, and are afraid of Mrs. Grundy. We know that very few of these men are really cured, and that they come home, go ashore, and wander about spreading the disease broadcast, and, by giving it to nursemaids and others, are the means of carrying venereal disease to children in private families. The Registrar-General, in his *Sixty-sixth Annual Report*, states that in one year, in England and Wales, 986 males and 843 females died from syphilis, and 12 males and 13 females from gonorrhoea, a total of 2,755. These statistics are much below the mark. What of the 19,081 children who died because they were born before full time? These figures refer only to those who die; but what of the immense total who are alive but suffering from the effects of venereal disease? It is interesting to note the amount of venereal diseases which came to light, for the year 1902, in the French army. There were 485,207 officers, non-commissioned officers, and men in the home service, and 77,185 in the foreign. The following are the statistics: Home Service: syphilis, 3,024, or 6.2 per 1,000; soft chancre, 1,071, or 2.2 per 1,000; gonorrhoea, 8,722, or 17.9 per 1,000, a total of 26.3 per 1,000. Foreign Service: syphilis, 1,219, or 15.8 per 1,000; soft chancre, 1,209, or 15.7 per 1,000; gonorrhoea, 2,986, or 38.7 per 1,000, a total of 70.2 per 1,000.

If reference be made to the *Fifty-ninth Report of the Commissioners*

in Lunacy (1905), Table XXII shows the influence of venereal diseases in causing insanity. In the yearly average for five years the condition of unsound mind in 489 persons was due to venereal diseases. Again Table XIV refers to deaths of lunatics from general paralysis of the insane (G. P. I.), and points out that of a total of 9,288 deaths in asylums, no less than 1,665 deaths were due to general paralysis of the insane. It is now held that the chief cause of general paralysis of the insane is syphilis. Mott, I think, states that from 25 to 40 per cent. of insanity is due to syphilis.

As bearing upon the devastating action of venereal disease *upon children*, Fournier says: "Syphilis is the essential murderer of those young in years; it is the veritable tomb of infants; it is the cause of death before birth, at the moment of birth, after birth, within the first week of birth, or it may await the first year. Syphilis, alcoholism, and tuberculosis constitute the triad of contemporaries." He gives the following facts: Of 28 mothers who had syphilis 1 child survived and 27 died. LeFleury's statistics show that of 414 syphilitic wives—who were pregnant when suffering from syphilis—who had among them 260 children, no less than 141 of these died within one month after birth. Of the 414 pregnancies 295 infants died, or about three deaths in every four births. When both parents are infected with syphilis the infant mortality is 68 per cent. in hospital practice, and 60 per cent. in private practice. Fournier terms the first year of the infant's life "l'année terrible," when speaking of the devastating influences of syphilis.

This is a fearful death-rate, much higher than that following small-pox, scarlet fever, or typhoid, and shows that the human animal is somewhat of a glut in the market. If other diseases of infancy, and especially gonorrhoeal ophthalmia in infants—a disease which sends many to institutions for the blind, makes many more become a charge to the Poor Law, and prevents others from earning a livelihood—were considered faithfully, the widespreading results of venereal disease would be more carefully studied. In New York in one year, of 1,941 mothers with gonorrhoea, 265 of their babies suffered from gonorrhoeal ophthalmia. In Switzerland one in every five cases of blindness is due to gonorrhoea. In New York of the 1,941 cases of maternal gonorrhoea, 218 female children suffered from vulvo-vaginitis.

In all the discussions bearing upon the falling birth-rate, I have seen no notice given to venereal diseases and operations upon the uterine organs as causes of this fall. I contend that they are very serious causes.

How can venereal disease be stamped out?—No practical person holds that the registration of prostitutes on the Continent, or in England when

the Contagious Diseases Acts were in force, has been, or can be, of any service.

I would, however, suggest that notification of venereal diseases to the health authority, or to some central body in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, be adopted, and that hospitals, supported by the municipalities, be established at which all poor venereals can obtain free treatment.

Bearing upon the above suggestions, I would point out that we now have compulsory notification of infectious diseases. Why not have notification of contagious diseases—especially as contagious diseases cause more widespread evils?²⁵

Dr. Fournier, one of the highest French authorities says:

Syphilis causes certain forms of insanity. Of 4,700 patients, 2,009, or 42.7 per cent. had nervous disorders. All the body is affected; general paralysis, locomotor ataxia, cancer of the tongue.

Collective damage: (1) Wives are infected. Twenty per cent. of women who have syphilis take it from their husbands; (2) Venereal diseases given by husbands drive women to divorce; the family is ruined; a great source of neglected and delinquent children, so costly and dangerous to the state.

Heredity: Syphilis slays infants by hecatombs; 60 per cent. in the city at large, 84.86 per cent. in hospitals, of infants of syphilitic mothers die. Idiocy, insanity, abortion, still-births result.²⁶

If it is said that the foregoing statistics apply only to European countries, and that in the United States the situation is not so alarming, we must reply by adducing the results of investigations by American physicians. In a communication from Dr. Prince A. Morrow the economic consequences of venereal diseases are discussed:

While the enormous prevalence of venereal infection is undeniable, and its dangers, both individual and social, are scientifically demonstrated, yet any estimate of the money loss to the community or nation must be purely conjectural and lacking in scientific accuracy. Such an estimate must include as items: (1) invalidism, often permanent; (2) loss of wage-earning capacity; (3) the cost of treatment, incalculable but enormous; (4) the cost of educating and caring for blind children, the idiots, deaf

²⁵ Robert R. Rentoul, *Race Culture*, chap. xvii.

²⁶ M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*. Melun, 1908; 2 vols.

muters, the insane, and other defectives; (5) the loss of citizens to the state from the sterilizing influence of gonorrhea. . . . In the report of the surgeon-general of the U. S. army for 1904, it is stated that of every 1,000 soldiers stationed in the United States, 167 were admitted to the hospital for gonorrhea or syphilis. This was more than double the morbidity of tonsillitis, the next most common of the diseases to which the troop men were subject. . . . In the troops stationed in the Philippines, the venereal morbidity was 297 per 1,000, largely exceeding the morbidity from malarial fevers and diarrhea; 22 out of every 1,000 soldiers were constantly ineffective from venereal diseases—four times as many as from any other disease. . . .

The statistics of the Navy Department show during the same year that venereal disease was chargeable with a percentage of 25.2 per cent. of the total number of sick days in the hospital from all causes combined. In four years 949 men were discharged from the navy for disability from venereal diseases.

The most extended investigation ever made in this country was that of the "Committee of Seven on the Prophylaxis of Venereal Disease in New York City" in 1901. The committee was composed of medical men of recognized standing. A circular letter of questions was sent to 4,750 physicians resident in Greater New York, of whom 886 replied, but only 678 furnished statistics. These reported 23,196 cases (15,969 gonorrhea and 7,200 syphilis). From this the committee estimated that about 162,372 cases were treated in that year in the city. To these must be added the large number treated by druggists and quacks. The records of hospitals and dispensaries furnished further cases in great number. In public and private practice they thought 225,000 cases were treated. If we compare the morbidity of venereal diseases with that of other infectious diseases we find a startling contrast; for in 1900 the records showed that of measles there were only 12,530 cases; diphtheria, 11,001 cases; scarlet fever, 7,387 cases; chicken-pox, 1,251 cases; smallpox, 99 cases; tuberculosis, 8,877 cases. Tuberculosis is not adequately reported; the others are approximately correct; and against these we have a venereal morbidity of 225,000 cases. Yet, officially, venereal diseases do not exist in New York City, says the report. There is a conspiracy of hypocrisy to conceal the presence of these plagues and pretend that they do not exist.

Another valuable investigation was made by the "Committee on Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis" in Baltimore:

A circular letter was drafted, asking for detailed reports of venereal cases, and a copy was sent to each of the 1,200 physicians resident in Baltimore. Permission to inspect their records was also asked from the superintendents of the various dispensaries and public institutions in Baltimore, in which this class of cases is received. To the circular letters sent to the members of the medical profession relating to the statistics of private practice, 224 replies were received, about 18 per cent.

The statistics obtained from physicians in private practice consist entirely of the reports handed in by the 151 physicians whose returns were apparently careful and accurate. The total number of cases reported by them for the year 1906 is 3,090—2,195 cases of gonorrhoea and 895 cases of syphilis. These reports have been tabulated and preserved in a permanent form for reference. It is to be understood that no cases of chancroid are included in these figures. While the frequency of chancroid is variable, being less in private than in public practice, the statistics of all authors in all countries estimate it at from 9 to 35 per cent. of the total venereal morbidity.

Taking this aggregate of 3,090 cases and knowing that the 151 physicians who reported them represent only one-eighth of the total number of practicing physicians in Baltimore, it becomes evident that the number of cases here reported represents only a small fraction of the total number of cases actually treated in private practice during the year of 1906. Moreover, when account is taken of the quack doctors and advertising "specialists" who treat venereal patients it is obvious that the number of venereal cases here recorded must fall far short of the actual number of cases treated. It is only necessary to glance at the advertisements in the daily papers or to visit the expensive offices of the advertising quacks to reap assurance of the fact that venereal patients bring in large returns to the irregular practitioner. The amount of literature which the charlatans circulate is itself conclusive evidence of the thriving practice that they drive. On account of the shame and secrecy associated with the social diseases, the venereal patient is particularly prone to be duped by the fakir.

It is well known that many drug stores in this city owe a large part of their revenue to this class of practice and the many "sure cures" and blood purifiers which may be found upon their shelves bear witness to this fact. In addition to the patients who are treated by the irregular practitioner, are those who remain untreated or who use prescriptions given them by friends, and although it is impossible to estimate the number of

these cases any fairminded physician must admit that the number is large. The testimony of European physicians is that from 25 to 50 per cent. of all venereals are treated by charlatans.

On further analysis of those statistics it was found that 1,328 cases of gonorrhoea occurred in men, 542 cases in women, and 114 cases in children. Of the infections in women 202 were particularly noted as marital infections. The proportion of women and children to men in the statistics regarding syphilis is remarkably high. In men 489 cases occurred, 303 in women, and 103 in children. Of the cases occurring in children 93 were classified as hereditary infections. Notes as to the source of the infection were, public prostitutes 678, clandestine prostitutes 625, extra-genital infection 184, and "source unknown" 376.

In examining the dispensary and hospital records, the Committee recorded only those cases where a definite diagnosis of gonorrhoea or syphilis was made. In some of the hospitals and dispensaries it was impossible to obtain any reliable statistics owing to the insufficiencies in the histories. In many of the cases no diagnosis was put down, and in some dispensaries no available histories were to be had. In one prominent dispensary, for example, 7,593 patients were listed for the year 1906, but the histories were so incomplete that it was impossible to obtain any reliable information from them. Only 17 of the 41 hospitals in Baltimore afforded any opportunities for statistical research, so the figures which follow represent only the cases treated in those 17 institutions during the year 1906. The total number of cases recorded was 6,360. Of these 4,553 were diagnosed as gonorrhoea and 1,807 as syphilis. Owing to the lack of available information in over one-half of our hospitals and dispensaries these figures represent most inadequately the number of venereal patients actually treated in our public institutions in the year 1906. Despite the fact, however, the extent of venereal morbidity embodied in this report far exceeds the morbidity resulting from the other contagious diseases in the year 1906, as officially recorded by the Board of Health.

In the year 1906, 575 cases of measles were reported; 1,172 cases of diphtheria; 577 cases of scarlet fever; 175 cases of chicken-pox; 58 cases of smallpox; 1,215 cases of typhoid fever; 465 cases of whooping cough; 57 cases of mumps, and 733 cases of tuberculosis, making a grand total of 5,047. The number of cases of tuberculosis reported is of course absurdly small, but since the tuberculosis campaign began the number of notifications has been considerably increased. This illustrates again the signal advantage of educating the general public in any effort to make preventive medicine efficacious.

Taking now the number of cases of contagious disease reported at the

Health Bureau, let us compare with it the number of cases of venereal disease reported by the committee. There were reported 3,090 cases in private practice and 6,360 cases were recorded in the hospitals and dispensaries investigated, making a grand total of 9,450 cases of venereal disease. Opposed to this morbidity we have the sum total of 5,047 cases representing the collective morbidity resulting from the other contagious diseases in the year 1906.

When we notice that only 58 cases of smallpox were reported in 1906 and then realize that even the wholly inadequate figures of the committee show 2,706 cases of great pox in the same year, the thought must occur to us that the medical profession might for a time at least advantageously turn its attention to the greater evil.²⁷

No doubt similar results would be found in other cities. We may add fragmentary illustrations which indicate that New York and Baltimore are by no means exceptional.

So prevalent are these [venereal diseases] in our large cities that at least half the adult male population of all social grades, according to conservative estimates, contract one or both of them.²⁸

It is well known that insanity is one of the heaviest burdens on the financial resources of our states. The cause of insanity, even when known to be venereal disease, is often covered up under some other name. Yet we discover some facts in reports of asylums.

In the *Ninth Annual Report of the State Board of Insanity of Massachusetts* for the year ending November 30, 1907, p. 15, we find the following:

First cases received 2,414. One insane person came under care for the first time from every 1,291 of the estimated population of the state. No causes of insanity were assigned by the physicians of the hospital. . . . Congenital causes were assigned in 5.47 per cent.; heredity alone in 5.26 per cent., with other causes 14.13 per cent. . . . Alcoholic intemperance alone in 16.65 per cent., with other causes 5.35 per cent., making alcohol a causative factor in 22 per cent., senility in 13.79 per cent.; coarse brain lesions in 5.30 per cent.; syphilis in 3.19 per cent. In the insane ward of the State Hospital the average rate for three years (1905-7) was 5.93 per cent.; in Worcester Hospital the highest, 6.13 per cent.

²⁷ Reported by D. R. Hooker, M.D., *Maryland Medical Journal*, February, 1908.

²⁸ W. T. Belfield, *Man and Woman*, p. 86.

The economic loss due to venereal diseases is indicated in this citation from a circular of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene:

Gonorrhoea, while usually cured without apparent loss of health, has always serious possibilities: it kills about one in two hundred; it permanently maims one in a hundred; it impairs the sexual power and fertility of a much larger number; it often produces urethral stricture, which later may cause loss of health and even of life; and in many cases it causes chronic pain and distress in the sexual organs with severe mental depression. The loss of health, time, and money entailed by these sequels and their treatment may far exceed that occasioned by the original disease.

The disaster to the individual wrought by syphilis is shown in the attitude of the leading insurance companies toward those so infected—a purely business proposition devoid of all sentimental considerations. They refuse to insure the life of a syphilitic person for four or five years after the disease was contracted, and then only upon special terms. For their records prove that syphilis shortens life.²⁹

One of the highest authorities on pauperism, Amos G. Warner (*American Charities*, pp. 66-71, ed. of 1894), has given us the result of a prolonged expert study of degenerate persons in American cities:

Careful observers believe it [licentiousness] to be a more constant and fundamental cause of degeneration than intemperance. . . . No boy among boys, or man among men, can have failed to have evidence thrust upon him showing that a very great amount of vitality is burnt out by the fires of lust. . . . Personal acquaintance with railroad day laborers, and others of a similar class, convinces the writer that they are commonly kept from rising in the industrial scale by their sensuality, and that it is this and the resulting degeneration that finally converts them into lazy vagabonds. The inherent uncleanness of their minds prevents them from rising above the rank of day laborers, and finally incapacitates them even for that position. It may also be suggested that the modern man has a stronger imagination than the man of a few hundred years ago, and that sensuality destroys him the more rapidly.

To this testimony might be added that of Dugdale in his remarkable story of the Jukes, and McCulloch's story of the Ishmaels. Venereal diseases are spread even to innocent persons by the floating class of irresponsible vagrants.³⁰

²⁹ Cf. W. T. Belfield, *Man and Woman*, p. 90.

³⁰ See *Report of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy* (British), Vol. II, pp. 105, 203.

III. MORAL LOSS CAUSED BY THE SOCIAL EVIL AND SEXUAL VICES

This subject does not lend itself to precise statistical treatment, yet the argument does not lack cogency. In the extreme form we discern the spiritual ruin wrought by wicked indulgence, in the wrecks of humanity inclosed in prisons and cared for in asylums and hospitals.

A curious and somber aspect of this matter is that men who indulge in base vice lose the fine quality of conscience without knowing it. First goes the power to blush; then comes the levity, the coarseness, the positive delight in obscenity which shocks the right minded. The roué loses faith in the purity of women and of men, and judges the world by himself. It is simply inconceivable to him that anyone can be other than the debased and polluted creature which he has voluntarily made himself.²¹

²¹ A. Marro, *La puberté*, pp. 517 ff.; G. F. Lydston, *The Diseases of Society*.

CHAPTER II

METHODS OF SOCIAL CONTROL AND MOVEMENTS FOR AMELIORATION

It is true that this Handbook is primarily for teachers and that its chief object is to discuss the best educational methods of dealing with the problems connected with the sexual life. But a consideration of various policies of regulation and control is necessary at this point for at least three good reasons; first, because many teachers are among the leaders of thought in their communities, and their attitude is a large factor in shaping a sound public opinion; second, because a critical examination of all proposed methods of police regulation must reveal their partial failure and show the necessity for an educational campaign; third, because many of the arguments used for certain methods of regulation tend to poison the moral nature and undo the work of faithful teachers.

No scheme of external police regulation can ever take the place of a sound moral training and that rational self-control which is the only ultimate guaranty of good citizenship. Yet police and sanitary control of some kind is necessary. While vice and crime exist, and until education in morality and religion has done its perfect work, society must employ its police powers as far as these are available to diminish disease, protect the innocent, and guard the ignorant against temptation. Teachers, like all other thoughtful and responsible formers of opinion and character, should be acquainted with the actual and proposed measures of governments.

I. THE SANITARY POINT OF VIEW, AND "RÉGLEMENTATION"

Physicians very properly regard it as their social duty to guard in all possible ways against the communication of infectious diseases of all kinds. They lead the civilized world in advocating and organizing measures for diminishing typhoid fever, tuberculosis, scarlet fever, and other communicable maladies; and for this they deserve our praise and our support. Now, medical practitioners are compelled in their daily rounds of duty to come into contact with the loathsome and dangerous diseases already discussed. Naturally

they inquire what society can do to diminish the spread of these infectious diseases which, for the most part, originate with prostitutes and their male clients.

Policy of state (or municipal) license or toleration, on the basis of inspection, control, and certificates of physicians.—This policy has many advocates, and it is followed in France, Germany and other nations. It is claimed that it is the duty of the state to prevent or at least to diminish all diseases, no matter what their nature, and so protect the public. To carry out a system of effective regulation it would be necessary (1) to distinguish and separate the diseased from the healthy prostitutes; (2) to bring all harlots into special quarters and houses where they can be supervised; (3) to discover and send to hospitals every harlot as soon as she is diseased and so capable of infecting men; (4) also to examine every man who enters a house of ill fame to be sure that he is not diseased.

Is such a policy capable of being carried out? An examination of the facts shows what might be expected, that not one part of this scheme can be carried out thoroughly. Of course infection may be prevented in a certain number of cases; the liability to infect may be reduced in particular instances; and it would be dishonest to deny that something has been achieved by systems of regulation and toleration.

We cite the argument of Professor Fournier in favor of the system of *réglementation*.¹ Dr. Fournier first gives evidence in support of the assertion that syphilis and gonorrhea are social plagues, ranking along with alcoholism and tuberculosis as agents of destruction. The evil is fourfold: these diseases inflict injuries on the diseased person; they are a source of misery to the wife and children; both occasion grave hereditary harm; and thus through injury to persons and families the nation suffers. The illustrations of this argument we have given elsewhere in this discussion.

Next Dr. Fournier takes up the objections to medical supervision of prostitution, which is the source of these venereal diseases: that such medical supervision is injurious, inadequate, and useless. He examines the assertion of the "abolitionists" that it is injurious

¹ M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, 1908.

to public health on account of the false security which it promises and by the terror which it inspires in prostitutes. In reply he says:

The state has never corrupted anyone, nor advised anyone to resort by preference to the women registered for medical control; and the guarantees offered by sanitary control are not very attractive, as is shown by the fact that the public houses, which are most secure, have long declined in numbers, notably at Paris, where, in a period of sixty years their number has fallen from 235 to 48 in 1901.

To the objection that *réglementation* inspires the women with fear and keeps them from registration and control, he says:

The objection is valid, so far as Paris is concerned, since the women dread Saint-Lazare because it is rather a prison than a hospital. Apathy, indolence, carelessness, vague fear of remedies and physicians, and often the prohibition of their employers who do not permit them to interrupt their occupation act as a deterrent to registration.

Another objection is that *réglementation* is inadequate. Dr. Fournier says:

The complaint is just, but *réglementation* has of necessity a limited field, and reaches only the lower levels. But even if it restricts disease a little it should be used. Private charity is good, although it leaves many poor without relief; and the police force is useful though it does not detect all criminals.

It is claimed by "abolitionists" that *réglementation* is useless. Dr. Fournier here enters upon an examination of the results of the Contagious Diseases Acts in England and similar legislation in Italy. This dispute is too complicated to repeat here and leads to no conclusive result for either side.

Dr. Fournier then states the programme which he claims commands the support of the majority of medical men. The object of this programme of action is to reduce the physical evils of prostitution (*l'assainement de la prostitution*). It demands all that is advantageous to public health and takes no thought of anything further. It demands a medical inspection of prostitutes at fixed intervals, and, when they are found to be diseased, their incarceration in a special asylum. The programme is summed up in these words: medical supervision of prostitution, a supervision which shall be legal, humane, and reformatory. By *legal supervision*, he means the substitution, in place of the arbitrary, omnipotent, and

capricious power of the police, of a system in which the law provides, defines, and limits all the measures which are to be used for the defense of public morals and health, such as the arrest of women for public solicitation, or their sequestration when they have contagious diseases. This supervision must be humane; that is, must be free from the persecutions of an intolerant discipline, and from all punishment; in a word, from all requirements which simply exasperate women and compel them to shake off an odious yoke, to the great detriment of the public health. The women under restraint by reason of contagious disease should be treated as sick and not as criminal persons, with all the kindness which is due any sick person. They should not be kept in a prison but in a special asylum, until a certificate of health is given. Moral influences should be used during the stay in the asylum; a trade should be taught by which the woman can earn an honest living, and she should then be encouraged and helped to lead a better life. Perhaps a more authoritative and competent representation of the system of *réglementation* could not be furnished. In another plea for public regulation according to the French method, Dr. Fournier says:

Do not accuse us hygienists and physicians of not having done our best to safeguard the public health, for we have struggled a long time to realize a better condition, but our counsel and our adjurations have simply been heard in high places. Still public opinion is energetically urged to abolish all medical supervision of prostitution by a powerful society called the Federation for Abolition. We count on the good sense of the French people to resist such doctrines, the result of which would be to multiply the venereal peril tenfold.²

This passage is cited simply to show the point of view of some French physicians and some in America also.

On the other hand, the arguments of the abolitionists in France are presented by Dr. Angagneur who, in his reply to Dr. Fournier, reached the following conclusions:

1. Venereal diseases have not the serious importance ascribed to them by the public and above all by specialists. Syphilis, the most important of all, has little influence on general morality and on the increase of population.

² Dr. Alfred Fournier, *Pour nos fils*, p. 46.

2. The variations in the rate of venereal morbidity are about the same throughout Europe. Venereal disease is decreasing in all the armies of Europe. The presence or absence of a system of *réglementation* has no appreciable influence on the amount of such disease.

3. The introduction of *réglementation* in a community which has not had such a system does not affect the rate of morbidity; if any effect is produced the rate increases.

4. The suppression of *réglementation* in any community does not affect the rate of venereal morbidity, but this rate often diminishes after the suspension of *réglementation*.

5. Prostitution necessarily brings the prostitutes to syphilis. *Réglementation* has no power to prevent this contamination.

6. It cannot be proved that the women subjected to inspection are more free from infection than those not under supervision. Older prostitutes in any case are more immune than the younger.

7. *Réglementation* does not tend to free prostitution from disease; it renders it more dangerous by keeping women from seeking treatment.

8. Those infected with venereal diseases are the more inclined to seek treatment the less vigorous is the supervision, and the more humane and accessible are the hospitals.

9. *Réglementation* has not had a favorable influence on venereal morbidity; on the contrary it aggravates it.

Some of these positions were sharply contested by medical men, especially the attempt to minimize the disastrous results of venereal diseases.³ Attempts at control are made by France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Austria, Hungary, Roumania, Spain, and Portugal. In the United States, England, Norway, Holland (except Rotterdam), Switzerland (except Geneva), this policy is not pursued.⁴

Can prostitutes be brought under control?

In all places and especially in the great cities attempts to suppress secret prostitution have come to a miserable fiasco. Thus in Paris with its approximately 4,000 registered prostitutes, estimates of secret prostitutes run from 10,000 to 120,000. In Berlin there are only 3,500 public and 10,000 to 50,000 secret harlots. In Vienna there are 1,700 to 2,000 registered and from 20,000 to 60,000 secret harlots.⁵

³M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, 1908.

⁴Gruber, *op. cit.*

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 16.

What is really promised by the advocates of the German license system? Not much. S. Bettman, an advocate of this system, will say no more than this: "Surely no greater security should be promised than control can afford."⁶ He follows Jadassohn in advising this information for male "clients" of the inspected harlots, in places where the tolerance and inspection system obtains:

1. Every prostitute, i. e., every woman who engages in sexual intercourse for pay, is under obligation to submit herself regularly to police investigation, in order to determine, as well as possible, whether she is suffering from a contagious disease.

2. Every prostitute is under obligation always to have and to show on request a card with her photograph similar to the one in the control book.

3. Every prostitute who has not this evidence is in the highest degree suspicious, and intercourse with her is particularly dangerous.

4. The card contains the certificate of the last police examination; and may not be more than four days old.

5. But even prostitutes who are regularly examined by the police physicians *may* be sick, since there are contagious maladies which the examinations cannot disclose.

6. The examination gives no security against infection with venereal diseases, but can merely diminish the danger of infection by exclusion of those who are affected certainly and in a high degree.

Regulations of this character are not an invitation to men to engage in immorality; they operate rather as a deterrent, and also indicate satisfactorily the still greater risk to health of intercourse with prostitutes who are not examined by police physicians.

To one who is really sane and knows all the facts this information would exclude all but men *sex mad*, insane from lust and drink. But fools will heed nothing. The most that Bettman claims is a *reduction* of the *probability* of infection for a certain case; he knows well that any man who persists will be infected some time. The question is whether this is worth what it costs; whether there are disadvantages over against advantages; and whether the same results cannot be obtained without a semblance of license by some better method? The effort to make the control, examination, and treatment thorough drives many of the wretched women to avoid the registration and conceal their condition. Men are tempted all the more to vicious and dangerous indulgence when

⁶ *Die aerztliche Ueberwachung der Prostitution*, S. Bettman, p. 162. 163.

the official certificate of health is exhibited by the temptress. Fear is allayed, but danger is by no means removed. *There is no safe way to sin.* Dr. Gruber declares:

The one who is prostituted or who has intercourse with prostitutes must be informed that he will soon or late become infected with venereal disease, even with the dangerous diseases of gonorrhea and syphilis."⁷

On the basis of a local investigation in the city of Mannheim, Germany, where the policy of inspection prevails, it has been affirmed that the number of the infected is still so great that the best possible control offers no secure protection against infection.⁸

As for myself, and I trust I speak for all in this professedly Christian land, I would declare: "We cannot consent to sanction of evil that good may come from it." . . . We will fight evil wherever we see it, and under all circumstances we will oppose the debasement of the public standards of right and morality. This we will do in entire confidence that in spite of all appearance the right so upheld will in the end prove victorious."⁹

The venereal diseases belong to the worst accompaniments of the sexual impulse. . . . Medicine, in connection with men's eagerness for pleasure, has hit upon the most absurd and debasing arrangements that one can imagine, i. e., state toleration, organization, and attempted cleansing of prostitution. Under the pretext of a sanitary regulation, they compel prostitutes to enrol themselves in houses of ill-fame and subject them there to regular medical inspections which are designed to remove the infected from circulation and require them to submit to treatment in the hospital. It is evident that the more or less unsavory service of a prostitute's physician on the whole (there are exceptions) is likely to be followed by physicians of inferior grade. We shall see later that the whole system fails of its purpose. The value of treatment of venereal diseases has been greatly overestimated. . . . The only adequate treatment of venereal infec-

⁷ Gruber: *op. cit.*, p. 30. Proof of the inefficiency and failure of all methods of government regulation are given by Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, Vienna, 1905; Dr. Howard A. Kelly, "What Is the Right Attitude of the Medical Profession Toward the Social Evil?" paper read before the American Medical Association, 1904, and reprinted from the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 4, 1905, citing an article by Frederick Griffith, in the *New York Medical Record*, April 23, 1904, on the status in Paris; James Foster Scott, *The Sexual Instinct*, 1908 (2d ed.); G. F. Lydston, *Diseases of Society*.

⁸ Drs. Lion and Loeb, in *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., p. 296.

⁹ Dr. Howard A. Kelly, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

tion is to *avoid* it. It is beyond belief that honorable women, with the idea of protecting their daughters from the lust of men, will continue to defend such barbaric institutions as licensed prostitution and regulation. Nothing but suggestion of men, to which women are often exposed, can make this comprehensible. That many men and physicians defend this system arises from a mixture of blind conservatism, faith in authority, and incapacity for forming a judgment, together with a concealed, often unconscious eroticism.¹⁰

What must be the influence of the system of inspection and control on members of the medical profession? It would not be true to assert of all the physicians who administer this system in Europe that they are unworthy of their high profession. If the system on the whole were the best for society men of character would be found to carry it out, repulsive as it might be in certain aspects. The treatment of disease cannot fairly be judged by aesthetic standards. From the outside we can sympathize with the expression of disgust with which even physicians repel the proposition to introduce Parisian methods in American cities. Thus a high-minded medical man says:

The necessity for examining women licensed to carry on their business will create in our midst a vile and odious specialty, akin and closely allied to the professional abortionist, degrading to our profession and partly bringing it into contempt by making it thus pander to vice. . . . Read Griffith's article, and see how many of the Paris medical men are employed with two tables examining prostitutes at the rate of about 450 an hour! What a lowering of our standards when we come to that!¹¹

But this praiseworthy repugnance to a vile task does not meet all the difficulties. Can the medical profession and the public authorities leave the whole matter alone and do nothing to cure and mitigate the ravages of the diseases in question?

This society has been criticized by some physicians for the adoption of a policy which excludes *réglementation* from its scheme of work. The failure of this system abroad in materially decreasing the spread of disease, apart from objections on moral grounds, and the hostility of public sentiment in this country, led to its rejection. It would seem a gross inconsistency for a society which holds that monogamy is the only sure basis of

¹⁰ Dr Forel, *Die essexuelle Frage*, pp. 230, 231.

¹¹ Dr. Howard A. Kelly.

the social order, the normal productivity and progress of the race, to sanction the legal recognition of a class of women set apart for polygamous practices. A society that recommends continence as the surest preventive of venereal infection cannot consistently favor a legalized provision for incontinence. We cannot afford to lower the standard of morality. The supremacy of morals in private or public life can never be established unless we hold fast to those immutable principles of right based upon the "moral code," which is diametrically opposed to the "conventional code of morals."

"Physicians," declares Dr. Osler, "should be the apostles of continence." Whether or not the individual lives of its members conform to this standard, the medical profession in its corporate capacity, in societies and associations, should proclaim the doctrine, based upon sound physiology and experience, that continence is not prejudicial to health. The almost universal infection of the minds of young men with the converse of this doctrine—the so-called "sexual necessity"—is in my opinion, the most powerful determining cause of masculine immorality.¹²

II. THE POLICY OF REPRESSION: THE "ABOLITIONISTS"

This policy aims at the absolute suppression of all illicit sexual intercourse. It requires, in order to be effective, that every harlot and every male frequenter of rooms or houses of ill fame be arrested and severely punished by fine and prolonged imprisonment. It is true that professional prostitutes can be driven out of rural districts and villages where there is an overwhelming public opinion in favor of this policy. But when the attempt is made in cities the evil is scattered but not exterminated. Policemen frequently accept bribes from the houses of ill fame as "hush money," and in return protect the outcasts from interruption. It is practically impossible to secure witnesses for prosecution. What man will testify, since his testimony incriminates himself? What woman of ill repute can be brought to testify?

It is very easy to declaim against sexual vice and demand that the authorities exterminate it root and branch; but such declamation seldom takes account of all the facts. Does any person who is acquainted with our great cities really mean to propose to imprison as criminals the unknown thousands of miserable women who sell body and soul for a living? Have such zealous and worthy orators

¹² Dr. Prince A. Morrow, *Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*.

even figured out how many prisons would have to be built and maintained to carry out their policy? Have they taken pains to learn, as they should before speaking, how impossible it would be to ferret out the secret prostitutes which the most vigilant detectives in European cities are unable to discover? Have they carefully studied the effects of attempts to treat prostitutes as criminals already made in obedience to occasional moral spasms of public interest in American cities? Have they ever duly thought out the demoralizing tendency on courts and police? Do they not know what a deeply rooted vice will do to pay hush money to those who are given power to imprison the offenders? Have they duly considered the revolting injustice of a policy of imprisoning women for an offense and permitting men, their accomplices and tempters, to go free or to escape with a fine?

Frankly we must give up the policy of repression, for it can be nothing more than a sham policy, full of hypocrisy and corruption, not at all effective for its purpose. A slower but more fundamental policy must be found; a policy which will not recognize the profession of the prostitute as legal or pretend to guarantee the lustful against disease, and yet will work steadily toward the cure and prevention of disease, and the removal of the causes.

III. THE POLICY OF MORAL REGULATION OF VICE

The essential features of this policy are:

1. *Repressive features.*—It is possible for the police force of government supported by wise laws and enlightened public opinion, in a reasonable degree, *to prevent the open and public solicitation of the temptress.* The street walker can be arrested; those who sit at open windows may be required to hide; red lights and other advertising methods may be suppressed; saloons, dancing-halls, and places of amusement can be cleared of vicious persons.

2. *Preventive features.*—Children must be rescued from the control and influence of vicious parents or guardians. The respectable tenants of tenement houses may be protected against the invasion of women of depraved habits. The crowding of living and sleeping-rooms, promiscuous and intimate association of persons of both sexes, especially of boarders, must be brought under municipal control. Still wider measures are the industrial education of

girls, vigorous action of juvenile courts to prevent the prostitution of girls, raising of wages of girls to a decent standard, supervision of work places and mercantile establishments.

3. *A system of moral regulation* must recognize the demands of the medical profession, and include practical measures of dealing with infected persons. Physicians should be trained for this task. Quacks should be rooted out and newspapers punished for inserting their advertisements, if not by law at least by withdrawal of patronage of subscribers and advertisers. Dispensaries and hospitals should admit patients suffering from these maladies, and the cost of treatment should not be in the way of the admission of anyone. District nurses should be taught to discover and know how to advise the ignorant and poor. Physicians paid by the public should be ready to treat poor persons who come to them. The sacred and responsible relations of marriage should be guarded before the portal by a state law requiring a medical certificate of an official physician of freedom from communicable disease as a condition of receiving a license to marry.

These points are argued at length in the report of the Committee of Fifteen in the volume called *The Social Evil*.¹³ The writer of this Handbook looks upon this Report as the most sane, high-minded, and practical statement which has come to his notice.

It is customary to speak as though there were but three possible ways of dealing with prostitution, absolute *laissez-faire*, absolute prohibition of vice, and *réglementation*.

It is very cogently argued that *laissez-faire* is an inadmissible policy. Not only does venereal disease extend its ravages unchecked, but every sort of moral iniquity thrives wherever vice is a law unto itself. With equal cogency it is argued that no human legislator can make vicious men or women virtuous, or preserve so close a surveillance over them as to prevent the exercise of their evil propensities. Thus, by a process of exclusion, *réglementation* is arrived at as the only rational policy for government to pursue.

It is difficult to understand how such naïve reasoning can still be entertained by thinking men. Regulative and repressive systems differ in emphasis, rather than in essence. The first aim of the *réglementationist* is to check disease; he recognizes, however, the gravity of vice in itself, and

¹³ Committee of Fifteen, *The Social Evil*, chap. xi (1902).

admits that no measures that may limit its volume are to be disregarded. The opponent of *réglementation*, while believing that vice itself is an evil that completely overshadows any hygienic effects that result from it, will generally admit that all means for combating venereal disease should be adopted, provided that they are not directly antagonistic to moral ends. Accordingly, we find many elements, both moral and sanitary, upon which both parties agree. A system of control based upon such common elements and supplemented somewhat as common-sense suggests, would escape the serious charge, now brought against *réglementation*, of making itself auxiliary to prostitution, and would at the same time be free from the moral and hygienic futility of violent repression. Such a system would abandon the task of effecting the impossible, in either morals or hygiene, and would reserve the powers at its command for the bringing about of such ameliorations as experience and reason have shown to be possible. Such a system we may term the Moral Regulation of Vice, since it would never lose sight of the fact that moral considerations are of paramount importance.

Repressive features in moral control.—The first point upon which all are agreed is the necessity of suppressing, so far as possible, flagrant incitement to debauch. Solicitation upon the street and in public places should be restrained; haunts of vice should be compelled to assume the appearance of decency; in short, every method of conspicuous advertising of vice should be done away with. It is admitted that this can only approximately be accomplished. The prostitute will always continue to make her presence known. But much would be gained if vice could be made relatively inconspicuous except to its votaries. The constant presence of women known to be immoral serves to recruit each year the patronage of prostitution by inciting to vice many who would not of themselves have sought illicit pleasures. From this point of view, it is far better that prostitutes should be clandestine in fact as well as in name than that they should appear in their true colors. A system which places moral ends before sanitary would be just as capable of dealing with this part of the problem as one which regards sanitary ends as paramount. As a practical fact, the former system would encounter less difficulty than the latter, since the exigencies of sanitary control require that a certain latitude of flagrancy should be given to the licensed prostitute. Reuss, p. 87, is cited: "From the moment that by inscription a semi-official seal is placed upon prostitution, one is morally bound to grant the women upon whom obligations are imposed the right to exercise their trade. For the great majority of public women, solicitation upon the street is the only kind that can be employed. The street where they elbow the passers-by, furnishes them the means of their existence; forbid it them, and they die of hunger."

The pernicious effect of a league between vice and legitimate pleasures has been mentioned above. Especially dangerous is vice in public drinking-places. Women are engaged to persuade men to drink alcoholic liquors to excess; the effects of alcohol, in turn, lend service to vice. . . . It will doubtless be impossible to keep the saloon absolutely free from the presence of prostitution, and to prohibit absolutely the sale of intoxicants in brothels. But a policy which should revoke the license of a saloonkeeper who permits unattended women to frequent his premises in the evening and night would assist in driving vice from the saloonkeeper. A supplemental policy of discouraging the sale of liquors in so-called hotels would be needed to make the plan effective.

In like manner, the dancing-hall or music-hall which lends itself to the purposes of vice is a public nuisance and could be reached by the police whenever immorality becomes flagrantly conspicuous.

Vice will naturally take refuge in private houses if denied the use of public places. It would still require regulation to keep it within the bounds of decency. It is in vain that it is driven into privacy if by conspicuous lights or signs or by noisy music it is permitted to make its presence notorious. An English law of the present day makes it possible to close a house if it is shown by the testimony of two responsible citizens to be used for immoral purposes. While it is doubtful whether such a law would have any other effect than that of breaking up the house of ill fame and compelling prostitutes to resort to solicitation upon the street, an analogous measure which should permit aggrieved neighbors to close a house which is obtrusively devoted to immorality would be a most efficient form in compelling such establishments to conceal their true character.

We may here consider whether moral ends are best subserved by relegating vice to a single quarter of the city. It is a serious question whether the house of ill fame, situated in a respectable locality and compelled to preserve an outward air of decency, is as dangerous to the community at large as a similar establishment surrounded by others of a like character and hence not under compulsion to refrain from flagrant devices for increasing its patronage.

Preventive features.—A second point upon which all parties will agree, is the desirability of keeping growing children free from contact with professional vice. The child who knows all evil is almost destined to share in it. No child over three years of age should be permitted in a house where prostitution is carried on. In tenements and flat-houses parents of children should be able to bring complaint against tenants of tenements or flats in the same building when suspicion is created that prostitution is carried on in such tenements and if the suspicion is found to be based

upon reasonable grounds, the courts should require the landlord to evict the suspected parties. The evil is one of such gravity that it would seem to justify a measure which interfered, to a certain extent, with the principle of inviolability of domicile.

Even where the children of the poor are not in immediate contact with professional vice, their surroundings are frequently highly inimical to virtue. When a whole family, adults and children of both sexes, is crowded together in a single room, moral degradation is almost inevitable. . . . The problem is one of the most intricate with which society has to deal, since the incomes of the poor and the rents which they have to pay are almost entirely fixed by laws over which government has little control. Nevertheless, the question may be raised whether it is not possible by means of restrictions upon the building and letting of houses, to discourage the formation of quarters that inevitably entail upon the community a most serious burden of vice and disease. . . .²⁴

The report further suggests: industrial education of girls, to help them to be self-supporting by honest industry; the prevention of the prostitution of minors by the care of neglected children, and, we may add, juvenile courts.

General practitioners should be required to possess a high degree of knowledge in the treatment of venereal maladies. . . . The quack physician who practically fosters disease for his own ends should be eliminated. Treatment for venereal disease should be within the reach of all. The cost of adequate treatment for the more serious forms of venereal maladies is so great that the vast majority of patients cannot be treated at all except at public hospitals and dispensaries. These should, accordingly, be numerous enough to furnish gratuitous treatment to all who desire it. Patients should be encouraged to appear for treatment; every care should be taken to insure them against exposure, since many would rather endure their maladies in secret than permit it to be known that they suffer from a shameful disease." If publicity cannot be avoided at public dispensaries, it would be for the general welfare to designate officially private physicians in each quarter of the city, who should treat such patients free of charge, receiving their compensation from the public treasury.

Dr. Morrow says that facilities for such treatment in New York City are inadequate; probably this is true in most if not all our cities.

Objection will doubtless be raised that such measures would minimize the deterrent effect that is exercised by venereal disease upon those

²⁴ *The Social Evil.*

who wish to indulge in vice. It is a sufficient answer that the chronic results of disease are frequently even more disastrous to innocent parties than to the sufferer himself. Moreover, the immediate consequences of disease are sufficiently grave to act as deterrent for those who can be deterred from vice by fear of disease. It is doubtful whether the distantly remote consequences are weighed at all.

Finally, a system of moral control cannot overlook the fact that venereal disease is frequently transmitted to innocent persons. It is difficult to see how this evil can be remedied except by the requirement, as a preliminary condition to the issuing of a marriage license, of a certificate from an official physician showing the present state of health of each of the contracting parties. Such a requirement would work no real hardship to anyone, since few persons who suspected the existence of a disease of this kind would apply for an official examination before health had been restored. It will be admitted that many difficulties would arise in the administration of such a law, and that it could only diminish somewhat the evil which it is designed to meet. The evil in question is, however, one of so revolting a nature that any amelioration would be worth a heavy cost.

The report urges the appointment of a special body of police agents for the administration of the system.

For the introduction of a system of control embodying the above features several state laws would be needed. But whereas *réglementation* would with difficulty find a place under the Constitution, a system of moral control would be open to no objections on the score of constitutional law. What is of greater importance, any good that might result from *réglementation* is fatally tainted with evil; whatever good might result from moral control is good unmixed. *Réglementation* would arouse the unpromising hostility of a great part of the community; intelligent moral control would meet with the approval of all, excepting of those who are not satisfied with a plan which would only gradually bring about moral and sanitary improvement, and who dream that there is some royal road to the instant abolition of either moral or sanitary evil.

The *Detroit method* may—with some misgivings—be mentioned under the plans for the mitigation of evils. Some think it only license under a new name. Dr. Guy L. Kiefer, health officer of Detroit, says:

The following method as practiced here has been in use about two months. . . . The keepers of all houses of prostitution known to the police have been notified that certificates of health will no longer be required nor accepted by the board of health. The board does not care about cer-

tificates, but does care about health. It is its duty to prevent, so far as possible, the spread of all contagious diseases, and venereal diseases are contagious."¹⁵

Therefore on and after January 1 the health officer, or some physician delegated by him, will visit these houses at unannounced and irregular intervals and examine the inmates. If any are found with a contagious disease (gonorrhea or syphilis) they will be *quarantined*. The placard used on these houses is a large yellow card with the one word "quarantined" printed on it in conspicuous, heavy, black letters. The keeper of the house then agrees to send the woman to a hospital for treatment at her own expense. "There, after a thorough examination, clinical and bacteriologic, by a physician of the board of health, when found recovered, she was allowed to go." The houses are not licensed, but these diseases are treated like other contagious diseases. An officer must be constantly at work. The plan is merely partial and palliative: many of the women will escape notice and go on infecting men; and in intervals of visits will infect many.

Educational methods of the state of Indiana.—In the year 1905 the legislature of Indiana passed a law, which was designed to prevent the issuance of licenses to marry in cases of unfit persons. The Board of Health of Indiana caused to be distributed a large number of cards on which were printed "facts about tuberculosis, gonorrhea, and syphilis."

New French Bill—We here insert a summary of the chief points of a bill recommended to the French parliament as a result of an investigation covering the experience of more than a century and a discussion of some of the most competent men in France during a period of three years.¹⁶ This bill (*Projet de loi concernant la prostitution et la prophylaxie des maladies vénériennes*) aims to take from the police the power of arbitrary arrest on suspicion, the power to punish without trial and all forms of legal tolerance, enforced inscription and medical inspection, with certificates of health which were condemned by a majority of the commission, not without

¹⁵ *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 21, 1908, p. 97.

¹⁶ *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, présenté par M. F. Kéanéquin. Melun, 1908. 2 vols., pp. 285, 534.

protest from strong medical authorities. This bill aims positively to prevent public solicitation and temptation, the seduction and ruin of girls, and to provide all possible means of healing diseases and limiting the spread of venereal poisons.

1. Among the general provisions of the bill are (*Titre I*): Prostitutes shall not be deprived of liberty except by due process of law; they shall not be compelled to register on a list of prostitutes and be subject to enforced inspection.

2. Minors are protected from moral peril (*Titre II*): if under the age of eighteen, and habitually immoral, they may be brought before a civil court and placed under the care of an institution for reformatory education up to majority or marriage. A useful industry is taught and money for a start in life furnished out of the earnings upon discharge.

3. Public solicitation to sexual immorality is brought under the law (*Titre III*), and the penal code is modified to provide fine and imprisonment for the offense.

4. The attempt to incite to evil conduct, notorious cohabitation for debauch, and the renting of a dwelling knowingly to prostitutes are brought under the Penal Code (*Titre IV*). The police are forbidden to enter a domicile, however, except in case of tumult or where a person's safety is in danger.

5. Preventive measures (*Titre V*). Prostitutes arrested under the law and found to be infected may be required to take medical treatment, if they do not submit to it voluntarily. On complaint any man or woman guilty of communicating a contagious venereal disease may be punished. Quack advertisements are brought under control. Hospitals are required to accept venereal cases for treatment. Dispensaries and consultations by physicians are provided for and exposure is forbidden. In all medical schools the young physicians must have instruction in venereal diseases. Mutual benefit societies must not refuse aid to members requiring medical aid for those maladies.

Mention may be made here of the problem of isolating the houses of ill fame with a view to removing them as far as possible from contact with children and youth. This involves, on the part of the police, a certain kind of silent toleration and the suspension of laws making it criminal to rent houses to be used for immoral

purposes. On this knotty subject opinions of thoughtful people differ widely. In some degree this is the actual policy followed in American cities, with spasmodic arrests—sometimes more in the interest of fees and bribes to policemen than with any real good to the community. On segregation we have the views of Dr. E. Lesser (*Verhütung und Bekämpfung*, etc.):

On the restriction of prostitutes to certain houses.—I may say at the very beginning that from a hygienic standpoint I do not ascribe to this question a very great importance, although there can be no doubt that it would be very much easier to control the conditions of health with harlots in the houses and to bring medical treatment to those who are sick. Still on the other hand it is very certain that at present under no conditions is it possible to shut up all the prostitutes of a great city or even the greater part of them in such houses. The hygienic conditions of the prostitutes outside of the houses would naturally in no way be touched by this arrangement, and therefore we must, even along with the existence of tolerated houses with the greater number of prostitutes who live where they please, employ the means we have before described and some others in order to secure sanitary conditions.

But in an entirely different relation, by partial restriction to certain places, that is by a partial compulsion to live in certain localities and streets, an advantage might be gained. This is not too much to say when for the majority of the largest cities the claim is made that in them prostitution is almost ubiquitous. I am satisfied that, for example here in Berlin, there are not many streets in which there are no prostitutes, and that on the other hand there are streets in which one or more prostitutes live in almost every house, and when we consider that by far the greatest number of prostitutes dwell in the quarters occupied by the poor families in the great tenement houses it is apparent without anything further that there is a very great demoralizing influence which is exercised by this universal presence of prostitution among the population. Even if in the dwellings where prostitutes dwell there are no children, yet on the same floor or in the house there may be children and growing youths and maidens who day by day have before them the shameless conduct of these prostitutes. It appears self-evident that the sense of modesty is dulled by this means and that moral self-control is disturbed and that those who are in danger are easily brought to the steep places of vice. To set aside this demoralizing influence of prostitution altogether naturally is something that can never be done, but even by a partial sequestration of prostitution at least a partial improvement of the situation can be made and also in

another direction the restriction of a number of prostitutes to several civic localities would make an improvement possible. I mean the diminution of the solicitation by prostitutes on the open streets. The conditions in a great number of the great streets of the larger cities and those also in Berlin are in fact greatly to be deplored. It is almost incredible with what openness the majority of the prostitutes conduct their solicitation on the streets, and how in consequence certain streets have been taken possession of by the prostitutes to such an extent that in the evening or at night decent women or girls cannot pass through these streets because they are considered prostitutes and are assailed by men in the most disagreeable way.

Ability to resist temptation, especially on the streets, is a serious factor, as can easily be understood. The man who is going on his way quietly without sexual intentions, finally, after he has been again and again attacked and the sexual nature disturbed, yields and follows the last of the prostitutes who speaks to him. The same man would under no conditions go to a house of ill fame, because this would imply a previous sexual purpose. That the incitements on the street have a great influence on the increase of sexual intercourse with prostitutes there can be no doubt, and for this reason restriction or segregation of a number of prostitutes would offer an immediate improvement, although of course a complete suppression of provocation on the street cannot be regarded as possible.

The control of employment bureaus.—The connection between the social evil and bureaus of employment in our large cities is described with painful accuracy from direct personal observation by Frances A. Kellor in her book *Out of Work*, Putnams (1904). She says:

But the . . . business methods and the frauds pale into insignificance beside conscious deliberate immorality of many offices and the traps they set for their unwary and helpless victims. Of these the honest employer knows but little and the employee recalls many escapes. The bare fact is that while advertising honest work and while furnishing it to some, many also degrade, debase, and ruin others and later cast them out moral and physical wrecks. Not only are they robbed of their small savings, hoarded like animals, and subjected to many indignities by proprietors, but they must submit to association with and temptation by street walkers and immoral men. Not only must they lodge under conditions which rob them of their self-respect, but unsuspectingly they are sold into disreputable houses and held as prisoners.

Not all offices are engaged in this work, though with few exceptions

they are careless in making inquiries where girls are sent. Figures can only be approximate, but it is no exaggeration to say, that in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, about 75 per cent. are not averse to sending women as employees to questionable places, and from 40 to 60 per cent. send them as inmates, obtaining their consent when possible.

The details given by Miss Kellor are painful and startling in the extreme but must be read in her interesting volume.

This chapter is in no sense of the word intended as a contribution to the extent of dealing with the social evil, whether it shall be regulated, exterminated, licensed, tolerated, or whether it is necessary or otherwise. Its sole purpose is to show one source of supply—places where unwilling recruits are secured: and to insist that some methods are unfair and that some offices are sailing under false colors. Even granting that neither regulation nor segregation will affect the demand, one thing is certain: increase the risk and the majority of such offices will retrench their work or go out of business, for they will do nothing that will not pay—and honest, ignorant, and helpless girls will be much better protected; for disreputable houses cannot so readily reach women who are penniless, friendless, and discouraged—the time when such proposals are most favorably received.

Associations for combating the social evil.—Teachers should be acquainted with the more important organizations working on behalf of social purity. These organizations have grown rapidly in numbers and in power during the past decade as the public is becoming more intelligent. An article in the new *Encyclopedia of Social Reform*, by Dr. Bliss, p. 1127, gives some information:

In Europe there is a National Federation for the Abolition of State Regulation of Vice. Its headquarters are at Geneva, Switzerland, and it has committees in various countries. This federation publishes sixteen different periodicals in seven different languages. The British Committee has its office at 17 Tothill Street, Westminster, S. W., London, England. The secretary is Mr. Maurice Gregory and the organ of that office is called *The Shield*. The International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic has for its secretary Mr. William Alexander Cotte, with offices at St. Mary's Chambers, 161-A Strand, London, W. C. This bureau has a committee known as a National Vigilance Committee with a branch in the United States. Dr. O. Edward Janney of Baltimore is the chairman of this committee in this country, and state associations have been formed. The White Cross Society, established by the Bishop of Durham, England, in 1883, and taken up in this country by Rev. B. F. DeCosta,

D.D. should be mentioned. The principal purposes of this organization are. First, to urge upon men the obligation of personal purity; second, to raise the level of public opinion upon public morality; third, to secure proper legislation in connection with morality. The New England Watch and Ward Society, having as its secretary Mr. J. Frank Chase, Boston, Mass., is one of the oldest societies in this country. It combats obscene literature, gambling, and vice. The New York Association for the Suppression of Vice, led by Mr. Anthony Comstock, devotes its efforts chiefly against obscene literature and degrading instruments of vice. The American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis seeks to limit the spread of diseases which have their origin in social evil. It was founded by the eminent physician, Dr. Prince A. Morrow of New York City. A society with similar purposes is established in Chicago—The Chicago Society of Social Hygiene—and the Milwaukee Society for Sanitary and Moral Education. There are others. All work largely through publications. The Women's Christian Temperance Union; the Young Women's and Young Men's Christian Associations; the King's Daughters; the National Council of Women; the Congress of Mothers; many women's clubs and various law and order societies in our cities have all undertaken this crusade. In most of the large cities may be found the rescue missions of the Catholic church and of other denominations of Christians, and the Florence Crittenden missions. The Health Education League at 113 Devonshire Street, Boston, Mass., publishes as No. 16 in the "Health Education Series" a little circular on *Sexual Hygiene*, by a member of the Massachusetts medical society. This league is doing excellent work.

Origin of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis in this country.

—The first gun fired in this movement was a paper on "The Prophylaxis of Venereal Diseases in New York City," read before the Medical Society of the County of New York, February, 1901. This was followed by the report of the Committee of Seven, New York, in December, 1901. An effort was then made to organize a society for the study and prevention of venereal diseases in this country, but it met with neither medical nor lay support. *Social Diseases and Marriage* was written in 1903 largely with a view of creating a professional sentiment in favor of this work. This was followed by a "Plea for the Organization of a Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis" read before the New York County Medical Society in May, 1904. Finally after months of personal solicitation the following named gentlemen united with me in a call for a meeting, February 8, 1905, to discuss the wisdom and expediency of forming a society for the prevention of social diseases: Dr. Stephen Smith, Dr. Edward L. Keyes,

Dr. George B. Fowler, Dr. L. Bolton Bangs, Dr. Edward L. Janeway, and Dr. Abraham Jacobi.¹⁷

Conclusion.—The sexual appetite is natural and universal; it serves a purpose. But it must be regarded from the social standpoint, in connection with the duty of having and caring for children, not from the selfish standpoint, as a mere means of fleshly gratification, with no moral or social object. This is the essential evil.¹⁸ The state must tolerate and control; it ought not to recognize prostitution in any way as legitimate. At best, law, police, government can do little more than affect the external conduct; they do not reach the springs of action, the habitual incentives, the active ideas, the personal motives, the spiritual valuations of satisfactions. Admitting all that may properly be claimed for the favorable reaction of even compulsory observance of decent requirements on the inner life, we must look to some influence far deeper and more pervasive for the ultimate self-regulation of life in accordance with the laws of social welfare and of the noblest life. This influence is education, and therefore we now turn from the medical profession and from the statesmen to that profession which deals with the character, the will, the moral nature in the most direct and persuasive way; we make our appeal to the school teachers, the parents, the spiritual counselors of children and youth. This will be the theme of the other part of this Handbook.

¹⁷ From letter of Dr. Prince A. Morrow to the writer.

¹⁸ Cf. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, p. 33.

THE EIGHTH YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC
STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

EDUCATION WITH REFERENCE TO SEX
AGENCIES AND METHODS

BY

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WITH A PAPER ON

SEX INSTRUCTION IN HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

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standing committee on teaching of hygiene*

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CHICAGO MEETINGS OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY, FEBRUARY 22 AND 24, 1909

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PREFACE

In Part I of this study evidence has been offered to prove that education in matters of sex is demanded by justice to childhood, to youth, to womankind, and to the race. Hitherto too generally educators—parents, pastors, teachers, and publishers—have shifted the responsibility from one to another, and tacitly agreed to neglect it. With what results may be seen by those who will take the pains to read the scientific statements cited and summarized in Part I, published separately, and in the medical works there abundantly quoted. It is indeed a sad and revolting story, but patriotic and philanthropic service frequently requires the subordination of aesthetic tastes to the demands of a world of suffering. To be too nice may be brutal cruelty.

INTRODUCTION

EDUCATION IN RELATION TO THE SEXUAL LIFE

Definition.—The word “education” is here used in a very wide sense, yet it is limited to the conscious and purposeful efforts of adults who seek to guide children and youth. Unquestionably nature and social life give instruction and shape character, quite apart from any intentional labor of parents and teachers; but we shall refer to these forces only so far as they may be directed and controlled by persons having an educational purpose.

The end of education, as here concerned, is found in the meaning of life itself.

1. *Personality.*—We may first think of education as the process of developing all the powers of a human personality. Only as we gain an adequate and worthy conception of man himself do we realize the significance of the teacher’s work. In no field of education is it more vital to have a clear and well-grounded conception of the end of all educational work than here. The very springs of action and power are in our convictions as to the dignity and worth of the human person. Many of the most fatal fallacies and sophistries which confuse men’s judgments in relation to sex morality thrive in the noisome swamps of unworthy notions of the rights of even the lowest of human beings, the weakest, the most ignorant, the most vile. One cannot despise even a harlot without lowering his moral vitality.

The entire movement of recent years started from the medical profession, because physicians were alarmed at the horrible consequences of venereal disease, at the physical miseries which spring from prostitution, and especially the sufferings of good women. But suppose it were possible to prevent venereal disease by the general use of precautions already known to physicians, while illicit pleasures went on; would our goal be reached? Is the prophylaxis of gonorrhea and syphilis the final end of this effort? The very title of the great and useful German society goes no farther: “Deutsche Gesellschaft zur Bekaempfung der Geschlechtskrankheiten.” The medical origin of the society is clear, and it has full justification, since physicians are the men whose social duty it is

to combat disease. A few—a very few—physicians have written on the subject in a manner to give the impression that the chief social task is to make sin safe! Not until we study the effects of venereal excesses and abuses on the personality, on the soul, can we understand and fully realize the purpose of this crusade, this contest for possession of the holy land of the spirit.

Even from the medical standpoint, that of solicitude for public health, the moral factors are of supreme importance. Every physician worthy of the honored name will insist that the best and the only sure and final prevention of these diseases is not a chemical bactericide, or mercury, or iodine, but a noble purpose, a clean character.

It is not a preacher but a physician in a medical discussion who voices this profound truth:

May state and society accept this spiritual and moral condition of prostitution simply as something given and unchangeable, and declare that this lost outcast is good for nothing but for satisfaction of male lust? No one can deny that this were scorn of the essence of the moral doctrine of Christianity, which we, in my opinion, must protect from destruction as the pillar which supports our entire civilization. The gospel teaches that we are all "called," that all men are children of God, that is, that every man preserves the power to rise out of the animal into something higher, and, in the measure of his faculties, to be the vessel and bearer of culture, which is in essence morality, and thereby to acquire freedom from the blindness and soul poverty of daily existence; that therefore every man represents an independent worth, an end in himself, and no man may be used as a thing; not even for a social end.¹

Of syphilis and venereal diseases in general, the true prophylaxis lies in self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control, combined with a due regard for the inalienable rights and the deepest interests of others, the claims of the weak and the dictates of honor.²

2. Social obligation.—While a human being cannot be made a mere thing, a means to the satisfaction of selfish gratification, nor a slave of society, yet personality is incomplete in isolation; individuality is not synonymous with selfishness. He is poor, starved, and mean as well as miserable who does not joyfully find his best self

¹ Dr. W. Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, etc., p. 32.

² R. J. Pye-Smith (at the seventy-sixth annual meeting of the British Medical Association, 1908), *British Medical Journal*, August 1, 1908, p. 259.

in free service to others, in a course of conduct which contributes to the well-being of his fellows.

Education must aim to furnish discipline for a rational community life; and the most important part of that life is the production, maintenance, and proper education of children and youth. Artificial avoidance of the responsibilities of having children in many well-situated families is often due to the fact that considerations of selfish comfort and ease determine the conduct, and men and women ignore their obligations to the race.

It is a pressing problem to know what to do to increase the birth rate of the superior stocks and keep proportionate at least the contribution of the inferior stocks. One of the most promising influences is the Eugenic movement started in England by Galton and Pearson to make proper procreation a part of religion and ethics, rather than a matter of whim only.*

According to the general belief of our nation each man has relations with God and obligations to him. Religious education is an essential part of general education; for personality is undeveloped while the religious nature slumbers, and social duties are imperfectly felt and valued apart from consideration of the Perfect, the altogether Good, the heavenly Father. In religion, as the supreme and comprehensive experience, the significance of personality, the worth of the individual, the sanctions of social duty come to the finest flower and sweetest fruit.

We do not reject the help of any right-minded man or woman who cannot travel with us so far; we gratefully accept all the help a merely ethical or aesthetic culture can give us; but those who have had one vision of God can never think, or act, or teach again as if that vision had never been at least momentarily in their experience.

Scope of educational activity.—In this discussion of educational methods to correct evils and guide conduct in a rational path we mean to include three aspects of spiritual action: control, instruction, and nurture. Other words may be used for the same things, and no classification can be made satisfactory to all; but the methods we are to consider may fairly be brought under these titles as convenient signs.

1. We shall see that control is especially necessary in infancy

*Report of the Committee on Eugenics, *American Breeders' Association*, Vol. IV, 1908 (President D. S. Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, chairman).

and early childhood, and also in reformatory education where vicious habits must be broken and new habits formed after years of perverted conduct. Under this head belong the care of infants by parents and nurses before any formal instruction or conscious self-direction can be employed.

2. Instruction is here used to designate the process of communication of knowledge; and, in particular, in this discussion, knowledge of the conditions and laws of wholesome living in relation to sex. It is the intellectual or rational aspect of education.

3. Nurture is here meant to indicate all that part of education which is due to the personal influence of teachers, companions, and associates, to the force of choice in acts of will and formation of habits, and the use of ideals of character from history, literature, and all the arts.

Each of these methods of shaping thought, feeling, and will must be employed wisely, persistently, and systematically in order to arm and equip the youth for self-direction, self-control, and worthy character.

Co-operating agents.—In the educational process, whether general or special, we have need of a systematic, sympathetic, unified co-operation of all the social agents of control, instruction, and nurture. Every one of these agencies has a certain peculiar force and function of its own. We mention here: (*a*) parents; (*b*) teachers, from kindergarten to university; (*c*) church and Sunday school; (*d*) physicians; (*e*) authors and editors. There are other powerful social agencies whose part in the educational process is great, but whose conscious effort is less directly educational, as actors, painters, business and political leaders. In certain particular fields and for particular parts of our task we have a right to claim the helpful co-operation of such agencies as: parental associations in connection with schools, teachers' associations, medical societies, societies of social hygiene or moral prophylaxis, health boards and commissioners, state and national health leagues, juvenile courts, reform societies for promoting personal purity, night missions, refuges for girls, dispensaries and hospitals, library censors, police censors of places of amusement, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, girls' clubs, women's clubs, churches, and adult Bible classes.

CHAPTER I

CARE OF INFANCY WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO SEX LIFE

There are able writers who refuse to discuss the care and control of infancy in connection with education, since the element of formal instruction is wanting and the subject is relatively passive. We need not here quarrel with this view, and we do not insist that this early regulation of life should be called education. Thus we avoid a fruitless controversy. We are sure that all well-informed teachers will recognize the immense importance of those habits which are started in infancy, even from the hour of birth or before. Citations from medical authorities will make the nature and extent of this factor very clear.

On the care of infants Dr. Griffith¹ recommends the avoidance of local irritation, as phimosis, worms in the bowel, inflammation, and constant supervision to guard against masturbation which sometimes begins very early with both male and female infants.

Masturbation is the most injurious of all the bad habits, and should be broken up just as early as possible. Children should especially be watched at the time of going to sleep and on first waking. Punishments and mechanical restraint are of little avail except with infants. With older children they usually make matters worse. Rewards are much more efficacious. It is of the utmost importance to watch the child closely, to keep his confidence, and by all possible means to teach self-control. Some local cause of irritation is often present, which can be removed. Medical advice should at once be sought.²

The necessity for right care of infants and young children in the home being admitted, we are brought face to face with serious educational problems: How can parents be taught this duty and the best way to perform it? Is there not a social need for classes of young women before and after marriage, where they can be

¹ J. P. C. Griffith, M.D., *The Care of the Baby*, p. 358.

² L. Emmett Holt, M.D., *The Care and Feeding of Children*, p. 188. The two books here cited contain a valuable fund of information on all matters of the hygiene and care of infants and young children. Cf. Mme. Augusta Mott-Weill, *Le foyer domestique*, and *La femme, la mère et l'enfant*.

taught the principles and methods of care of infants? Whose duty is it to organize such classes and who should conduct them?

Personal hygiene and training in relation to sexual inhibition, control, and health.—After the care of infancy the child and youth must be taught and trained to take care of the body in all respects, for sexual hygiene is only a part of wholesome living in general. At a later point more specific suggestions will be made.

CHAPTER II

IDEAL INTERESTS

Ideal interests are necessary to conquer and rule lusts.

Only some *other* passion will accomplish the desired control. With the Greeks, it was aesthetic passion, love of the grace and beauty, the rhythm and harmony, of a self-controlled life. With the Romans, it was the passion for dignity, power, honor of personality, evidenced in rule of appetite. But the passion for purity, the sense of something degrading and foul in surrender to the base, an interest in something spotless, free from adulteration, are, in some form or other, the chief resource in overcoming the tendency of excitement to usurp the governance of the self.¹

The gifted Dr. F. H. Montgomery, in a conversation with the author shortly before the death of that honored physician, urged the preparation of a circular for the Society of Social Hygiene which should make its appeal more directly to the ethical, aesthetic, and religious interests of boys and men. His worthy life and his professional position gave weight to this counsel. Some parts of this volume are written in response to his earnest charge.

In the *Star of Hope*, a paper published by convicts in a New York prison, one of the articles begins with this citation: "Trust in God and think of your mother, and evil will be powerless to tempt you." This advice was imparted by a noble sage to a class of Oxford graduates. Once, also, a moral philosopher was asked: "What memory, if any, would check a man's pursuit of sin, if religion failed?" And the answer promptly came, "Mother." From persons as widely separated as the sage and the convict comes the same testimony to the power of an ideal, especially when embodied in a fine personality.

It is in this sphere of influence that teachers may best work for purity and health; and, on the whole, even without systematic moral instruction, this self-denying, laborious, and useful profession has labored for worthy ideals and not in vain. Many a lad can testify that the refining influence of a woman teacher has helped

¹ Dewey and Tufts, *Ethics*, p. 410.

to keep him far from the base influence of unfit associations. The poetry and noble prose, the music married to immortal verse, made familiar and attractive even in humble elementary schools, and the unselfish, patriotic sentiments kindled at these altars, have made a career of impurity morally impossible for multitudes of men. Therefore, if some teacher feels herself unfitted, from ignorance of biology and hygiene, or from unconquerable timidity, to help tempted children and youth by specific instruction, let her never for a moment be discouraged or conscience-hurt. She may do something, indirectly and unconsciously, by her beautiful life, and by her enthusiasm for noble literature and biography, which the most scientific physician might be utterly unable to accomplish.

The brevity of these hints must not be interpreted as an indication that the subject is of minor importance.

CHAPTER III

FORMAL INSTRUCTION IN MATTERS OF SEX: NORMAL SATISFACTION OF THE SCIENTIFIC INTEREST

Having already considered what needs to be done in relation to personal hygiene and general training, we now approach the delicate problem raised by a theoretical interest, never entirely free from a prurient element caused by specific appetite in youths and adults.¹ Ignorance is not the only cause of excess, abuse, and vice; for natural appetite, especially when perverted, is a force even in spite of knowledge, and many a man gratifies his impulses although he knows well all the evil consequences. Yet ignorance is one important factor, and knowledge, if rightly imparted, is a help to the nobler life.

I am now convinced that the uplifting of the morality of our people lies, above all and everything else, in educating the children, rationally and morally. I believe that more evil has been done by the squeamishness of parents who are afraid to instruct their children in the vital facts of life, than by all the other agencies of vice put together. I am determined to overcome this obstacle to our national morality. I have not the slightest hesitation in saying that the right way has been found at last. Thousands of men have asked me why they were not taught the danger of vice in their youth, and I have had no reply to make to them. I intend now, with God's help, to remove this reproach from our land.²

The interest awakened in England is significant and encouraging for us. The story is told in the *Ladies' Home Journal* in the issue just cited.

When the popular Bishop of London was in this country, last year, he became intensely interested, it is said, in the awakening that had been created here as to the subject of the false modesty of parents with their children on the mystery of sex, and subsequent events seem to prove that the matter made a deep impression on the famous prelate's mind.

After the Bishop got home he grouped around him a company of the most distinguished men and women of England: the venerable Archbishop

¹ On the task of a good "sexual pedagogics," see A. Blaschko, *Sexualpädagogik*, 3 Kong. Deut. Gesell. B. G. p. 4, 1907.

² The Bishop of London, *Ladies' Home Journal*, May, 1908.

of York: the Bishops of Ripon, Southwark, Durham, and Hereford; the Dean of Canterbury; Canon Scott Holland, of Saint Paul's Cathedral; the Honorable E. Lyttleton, head master of Eton, the great English school; such foremost Nonconformist clergymen of England as the Reverends Thomas Spurgeon, F. B. Meyer, John Clifford, R. J. Campbell: such laymen, famed for philanthropy and wealth, as George Cadbury, W. T. Stead, Grattan Guinness, and before these men of influence he laid his conviction that the root of the "social evil" lay in this so-called "parental modesty," and that in the quickening of the parental conscience lay the remedy for the lifting up of England's moral tone which has for so long been the despair of England's foremost men. The Bishop offered to place himself at the head of a great moral crusade, the like of which has never before been seen in England, that would seek mainly to awaken the conscience of the parent-hood of England, and point out to every father and mother that the future moral welfare of the United Kingdom rested in doing away with the present false modesty, and in the frank and honest instruction of their children.

Every man in that notable meeting in London saw the force of the Bishop's idea; thousands of dollars were immediately subscribed; the personal co-operation of everyone present was gladly offered; men at the head of great commercial affairs promised their time, money, and services, and today a great crusade is under way in England.

More than one hundred meetings in London alone have been arranged for, in addition to several hundreds of meetings in every town and village in the kingdom; pamphlets are being prepared and will be distributed by the million; the head master of every great college and school will take a personal part; a special periodical called "Prevention" will be issued and distributed to every parent in England. And at the head and in the midst of this wonderfully well-conceived and far-reaching movement stands the Bishop of London uttering the words printed in the center of this page as the slogan for the campaign upon which he has entered for the good of England, and also these further words: "There shall be plain talking," says the Bishop of London; "the time has gone by for whispers and paraphrases. Boys and girls must be told what these great vital facts of life mean, and they must be given the proper knowledge of their bodies and the proper care of them. No abstractions: the only way now is to be frank, man to man." And to this important work are now to be devoted the great energies and widespread influence of this distinguished English prelate; probably, nay, unquestionably, the most popular man in the Church of England today.

The action of the Diocese of Massachusetts is worthy of mention as an indication of the interest of thoughtful leaders of the churches whose attention has been called to the facts.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC MORALS

To the Convention of the Diocese of Massachusetts:

Your Committee were appointed to make inquiry into the prevalence of immorality and its results; to recommend what, if any, measures are advisable to awaken a sense of responsibility among parents, teachers, physicians, and clergymen for the instruction of the young in personal purity; and to recommend any means which may help to diminish corrupting agencies or to build up a healthy antagonism to whatever undermines public morals.

The appointment of this Committee was largely due to the statements made in publications of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis and in recent discussions of medical associations. As these declared a condition which implied a wide spread of immorality, your Committee felt that it was their first duty to learn the facts.

They therefore addressed a circular to a number of the leading medical authorities in this part of the country, asking their belief as to these facts, and also requesting recommendations as to abating immorality. They have received replies from thirty-seven leading physicians, some of whom are recognized authorities upon these subjects. As these authorities are well nigh unanimous in condemning silence and the resulting ignorance to which in large measure these evils are due, your Committee feel it to be their duty to speak plainly.

It is agreed that venereal diseases are very widespread. Of these diseases, syphilis has always been recognized as highly infectious and dangerous involving both the guilty and innocent in its consequences. Gonorrhea, however, has been so generally regarded as easily cured and attended by no serious results, that most of the physicians whom we have consulted urge that the recent discovery of its malign effects ought to be widely made known. They say that it is the most widespread of all diseases among the male adult population.

That it has serious consequences upon innocent wives.

That about one-third of all venereal infections in women in the records of private practice are communicated by husbands.

That gonorrheal infection is responsible for nearly one-half of sterile marriages.

That it is as powerful a factor of depopulation as syphilis.

That one-fifth of all cases of blindness is due to gonococcic infection.

That the number of separations and divorces on account of marital

infection from venereal disease is much larger than is commonly supposed; and

That these crimes against women are largely due to ignorance.

The only apology for the open statement of facts like these is that in no other way can the public be aroused to combat the evil. The policy of silence has been an utter failure.

We therefore call upon *parents* to feel their sacred responsibility for judicious instruction of children as to sex and the relation of personal purity to health and happiness. With boys especially, it is not, as is too often supposed, an alternative of knowledge or ignorance, but of proper instruction from those they love and respect, or of partial, distorted, and vicious knowledge.

It is the business of fathers and mothers to know these things and to be perfectly frank with their children. If for any reason they feel themselves unable to do this, let them take counsel with the family physician upon the subject. Mothers especially should instruct their daughters, for young women are strangely ignorant in these matters. They should tell their daughters the fearful risk they undergo if they marry men who have led immoral lives. Parents should know the companions of their children, especially the young men with whom their daughters are acquainted.

A responsibility also rests upon *teachers* for their moral example and influence. There should be education of boys and girls as to sex by someone, outside the home if it cannot be had there. Careful instruction should be given by physicians, competent to teach biology and physiology, in high and preparatory schools, and to the freshmen classes in colleges and universities.

A greater responsibility rests upon *physicians*. One who is an authority upon this subject says: "The ignorance in regard to these diseases is very great, and general ignorance is to some extent based on inaccurate and incomplete knowledge in the medical profession. Within the last few years, and since the advent of bacteriology, these diseases are found to be more serious and far-reaching in their effects than was formerly believed."

Physicians should demand proper hospital treatment for the infected, both for their relief and for the safety of the innocent. Additional separate hospital provision ought to be made for this purpose, as at present such cases are generally refused. Opportunities for the hospital study of such cases, which are now very meagre, could thus be had.

We expect of physicians explicit and positive contradiction of the fallacy current among men, and sometimes sanctioned by pretended medical authority, that sexual continence is ever harmful to health. They should also tell patients in private practice how dangerous these maladies are and

how long, after persons fancy themselves cured, they may still be a menace to others.

Physicians should educate patients in hospitals and dispensaries by means of printed or other definite instructions.

A serious responsibility rests upon the *church*. Clergymen should teach positively the glory of purity. They should insist upon a single standard for men and women, and urge the reformation of the social code in this respect. The instinct of chivalry and heroism in men should be appealed to, to protect and defend womanhood. There should be clear and positive instruction in these matters to boys in confirmation classes.

Especially should clergymen hold up the Christian ideal of the body as a sacred thing—because it is the temple of the Holy Ghost. St. Paul asks: (I Cor. 6:15) "Know ye not that your bodies are the members of Christ? Shall I then take the members of Christ and make them the members of an harlot?" It should always be recognized that fornication is sacrilege in God's eyes.

In order to awaken this deeper sense of responsibility among parents, teachers, physicians, and clergymen, there should be carefully prepared literature, which should not be too technical nor diffuse. Such literature should be widely disseminated either by Societies of medical men for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, or by such organizations as the New England Watch and Ward Society.

As means for removing corrupting agencies, the following measures have been recommended by physicians:

Every wise effort against intemperance is an aid to purity. The rôle of alcohol in instigating immoral relations and spreading venereal diseases is very little appreciated. "A large proportion of men and a still larger proportion of women owe their initial debauch to the influence of alcohol."

The ambitious standards of social life and the increased cost of living are largely responsible for the postponement of marriage; and late marriages are in part answerable for immorality. The average age of the first marriage of men has within a century changed from twenty-two years to twenty-seven years, and it is during these five years that a vast amount of incontinence occurs. Public sentiment should honor young people who are willing to endure comparative poverty and privation in order to establish a home.

Another reform which should be undertaken is the suppression of medical advertisements. The scoundrels who thus attract the victims of these diseases either excite undue fears, or by pretended cures produce undue confidence. Persons ill with venereal diseases should put them-

selves under the care of reputable physicians. Legislation should be sought to forbid the demoralizing advertisements of quacks.

Public morals are also helped by every effort to improve industrial conditions and so to lift the pressure from many poor young women. Some shops, department stores and factories, through poor pay and the heartlessness of employers, expose the girls in their employ to strong temptations.

One of the most corrupting agencies of the present day is the sensational newspaper, whose exciting tales of vice and reports of crime have a demoralizing influence upon all who read them. Christian people have a duty here, and should not buy, and still more, should *refuse to advertise* in such papers.

The church cannot afford to be remiss in this every-day fight against the world, the flesh and the devil. Your Committee respectfully urge that this convention should beg Christians everywhere to join in a more open, explicit and earnest battle against the organized forces of evil.

FREDERICK B. ALLEN,
ALEXANDER MANN,
CHARLES N. FIELD,
GEORGE L. PAINE,
JEFFERY R. BRACKETT,
M. GRANT DANIELL,
ROBERT AMORY.

I. NECESSITY FOR GIVING INFORMATION

The necessity for giving some kind of instruction is now more generally acknowledged than it was a few years ago. It is seen that the child and the youth, from curiosity and wonder, are sure to inquire and learn the facts of sex. It is also only too painfully manifest that almost uniformly the information gained is partly false, mixed with base suggestion, expressed in coarse and salacious terms, and connected with unworthy and debasing ideas of sex. It is not a question of whether children and youth will learn, but only of the manner of their learning.

One important consideration in determining the ages for different details of instruction is the limitation of the opportunity for giving them. Nineteen-twentieths of children, and they of the poorer families, never go beyond grammar grades. Of 730,000 in the seventh and eighth grades only 390,000 continue, nearly one-half dropping out at twelve or thirteen years of age. Of 245,000 in the ninth grade (thirteen to fourteen years of age), only 74,000, the remnant of the 5,000,000 entering eight years before, are

graduated (sixteen to seventeen years of age). If saving knowledge of the Creator's laws is to reach his people it must be adapted to these conditions as far as possible.²

II SCIENTIFIC INTEREST

The theoretical interest in the phenomena of sex which asks for rational satisfaction in true science arises in connection with: (a) the anatomy and physiology of the human body; (b) the origin of living beings—birth and generation; (c) the explanation, after puberty, of sexual sensations and experiences—erotic dreams, nocturnal emissions, menstrual periods, sexual desires; (d) the truth about sexual commerce, illicit and legitimate; its purpose and use; its dangers, effects; temptations and ways of escape; modesty, etc.

Now it is manifest that theoretical interest is not concerned with all of these problems at once. The little child asks questions of its own; youth raises entirely new problems; while adult experience with marriage and parenthood demands still further knowledge.

III. DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAYS OF IMPARTING CORRECT INFORMATION

1. The excitement of erotic appetite is one of the chief dangers encountered. However strongly we may be convinced that instruction is needed we cannot safely conceal from ourselves the perils of even well-intended efforts. After puberty the images and ideas connected with sex tend to awaken specific sensations by acting on certain nerve centers, to increase the circulation of blood in the organs of reproduction, and to quicken secretion in the glands connected with these organs; and all this is followed by demand for relief in satisfaction of the sexual appetite, especially with boys. An eminent teacher said wisely: Never put into the mind anything which you do not want to remain there.

2. Unless knowledge is very carefully presented the teaching may stimulate prurient curiosity, which again may lead to perilous experiments of boys and girls, with danger of life-long injury and disgrace.

It is said that when little children are told in school any facts about sex they go out to tell them, often in perverted form, to

² *Instruction in the Physiology and Hygiene of Sex* (by a member of the Society of Social and Moral Prophylaxis), p. 19.

other children. Perhaps occasionally some harm arises from this fact. But would not the same children quite naturally talk over these matters together under any circumstances, and is it not better their conversation should be guided by adult science than by ignorance, fable, lies, and vulgar speech of unfit persons? Something can be done to dissuade children from talking unnecessarily on the subject, just as they can be taught and trained to modesty and good taste in regard to other matters.

3. The difficulty in the case of parents is very great, because the information must suggest a personal element which fathers and mothers hesitate to disclose to their children. The art of teaching is here put to its severest tests by the necessity to make this very personal factor a means of giving sacredness and dignity to facts which are too often associated with merely animal impulses and acts.

4. Another difficulty of very serious nature is that, in common speech, we have a very imperfect vocabulary to make known the facts about the organs, parts, and functions of reproduction. The unwritten vocabulary of childhood and coarse associations is itself an incitement to lust, a debasing and soiling agency. In nature-study the child may unconsciously be accustomed to a precise, clean, and dignified vocabulary which may be used for our purpose.

5. One difficulty of teaching in school is the irrational opposition of parents and others. Part of this opposition is well-grounded: the teachers are seldom prepared, seldom have the fundamental biological knowledge to do it perfectly.

If we are to attain any practical result, we must carefully heed actual conditions, set aside merely future requirements, and limit ourselves to that which the authorities and all parents of insight after fair trial can approve.*

IV. PATHS OF APPROACH IN FORMAL INSTRUCTION

1. Through nature-study, biology, botany, zoölogy. From a very early period of childhood the person may, at a time when erotic appetites are unfelt, gradually become familiar with the life cycle of plants, growth, flower, fertilization, formation of seed, reproduction of the species, and so on over and over through generations. The window garden is large enough to recite the story of life

* Professor Schäfenacker, *Sexualpädagogik*, D.G.B.G., p. 94.

in fair and charming forms, processes, and colors, in winter or in summer, even in the poorest tenement. But here the mother often needs the help of a teacher because she may know nothing of the revelations of modern biology.

All the essential facts and principles may be made familiar to young children where pet birds, poultry, dogs, and cats are kept in the household. In fact, children usually do discover, in a fragmentary and often undesirable way, much more than their parents give them credit for; and they will talk freely with each other when they will not talk to adults, because they soon discover that in the world and society of grown-ups the whole matter is *tabu*. Reticence is not due, in the case of young children, to any sense of moral wrong, but simply to an artificially induced fear of offending elders for some mysterious and unknown reason. With ignorant and rude servants they are often more at ease, unfortunately.

It is impossible to treat thoroughly the life history of plants and animals and ignore the reproductive system. If any school authorities determine to keep the discussion of sex out of their schools they must simply refuse to introduce modern biology and to resist the movement in favor of scientific instruction which has done so much for modern education. Any prudish attempt to ignore the reproductive organs in class will excite a morbid interest in them and defeat the moral purpose of the teacher.

Assuming for the moment that botany and zoölogy, whether as nature-study or in systematic form, are to be taught by modern methods and by competent teachers, let us consider what is involved. The entire plant or animal lies on the table and is carefully examined with the aid of lenses, and microscope.⁵ Does anyone familiar with the laboratory method for a moment imagine that the children and youth will observe the forms and functions of organs of alimentation, digestion, absorption, circulation, excretion, sensation, motion, and co-ordination and not have the slightest curiosity about the form and function of the organs which secure the perpetuation of the species? If the teacher attempts to conceal these parts and to intimate that the study of them is improper, he cor-

⁵ It is assumed here that the textbook method, without dissections, is abandoned by all competent teachers.

rupts the moral sense, kindles prurient interest, and loses the confidence of his students.

Much may be said in favor of having young people taught biological subjects in separate classes, with teachers of the same sex as the members of the class; but no sound argument can be advanced for a study of these subjects merely by means of expurgated textbooks without observations and dissections of the organized living creatures themselves. At least I shall not occupy any space in this volume to plead for truly scientific methods in nature-study.

a. Nature-study is a good introduction to sexual pedagogy, but it is not adequate and complete. This is because man is not only an animal, a nature-object, but vastly more; he is a person, a moral being, self-directed and also under social law and spiritual obligations. If instruction stopped with explaining that reproduction is "natural," just as it is with animals, the youth might infer, is too likely to infer, that as soon as appetite and opportunity meet, the sexual act is legitimate. This would of course be ruinous. The youth needs to know the historical origin of the social inhibitions—shame, modesty, marriage, etc.—and their reasons in physiology, and economics, and the necessity of building up character by self-control. Animals have only appetite to move, direct, and control them; human beings have conscience, law, reason, science, customs, religion to guide them. For animals appetite is enough; for man appetite is only one factor among many legitimate factors.

These considerations lead one to think that the pedagogical task is far more complex than it is sometimes represented, especially by some biologists and physicians. It is true, and important to show youth, that appetite should be held in bounds by physiological considerations, such as the need of maturity and full growth of organs, the accumulation of tissue before reproduction begins, the imperfect fruit of precocious reproduction, etc. It can be shown that in case of animals the stock-breeder finds it well to keep the sexes apart, to delay reproduction, to prevent it entirely in case of "scrubs," as by castration, isolation, etc. But human control must come from the widest possible survey of all the considerations which come from the entire spiritual, moral, aesthetic, religious, and social worlds.

b. Another path of approach to sexual hygiene is in connection with the general subject of human anatomy, physiology, and personal hygiene.

c. A third avenue is that opened by the director of physical culture in family, kindergarten, school, high school, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations,⁶ clubs of boys, girls, and adults. In all these circles, physical vigor, grace, power are more and more esteemed. Girls as well as boys have set before them an ideal of bodily force and health which can readily be utilized. The ambitions of the athlete can easily be shown to be inconsistent with sexual excess and venereal diseases; a choice must be made in view of the total situation. Frequently the most influential lessons in morality are given by a blunt word from the physical director, if he is of the right character.

d. Instruction in matters of sex should be made a natural part of the whole system of instruction in science and morality, and not a subject apart. Thus in connection with lessons upon filial duty, self-respect, personal dignity, patriotism, obligations to posterity and to the race, conscience, purity, and religion the facts of sex life have their proper place.

V. SELECTION OF MATERIALS AND ADAPTATION OF METHODS OF INSTRUCTION TO STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

It is evident that the selection of the particular facts and principles to be taught must be governed by the stage of development of the pupils. We may therefore roughly classify and analyze the facts to be taught according to the approximate age of the person: (1) the young child, (2) child at puberty, (3) adolescents, (4) adults about the time of marriage, (5) parents.

The materials of instruction should be presented in view of the discovered interests of the person. It is hurtful to anticipate the scientific curiosity and the practical needs of the pupil. So far as possible the right moment should be chosen and what is necessary to say should be said once for all, and so clearly that it will be known forever. When any statement of this order is given

⁶ See paper of George J. Fisher, M.D., in *Transactions of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, 1908, pp. 130 ff.

it should be correct, scientific, precise, and notice should be served that it will not frequently be repeated, if at all.

SECTION I. Childhood.—The interest of young children in this field relates primarily to the origin of life, and it is awakened in the form of curiosity by the birth of a baby in the family or in the family of a neighbor, or by the birth of kittens, puppies, colts, chickens, canary birds. The child in normal surroundings early becomes familiar with some of the main facts of maintenance and care, such as nourishment of the infant at the mother's breast, the presence of the father as earner of income and source of supplies for the house, and the control, affection, and sympathy of both. Quite early the young child asks: Where was baby before we saw it? How did it come to us? Who brought it? Why did it come to this house? and so on in multifarious forms.

The most common methods of quieting the persistent demands of this purely scientific interest is a myth or a theology: "The stork brought it," "the doctor gave it to us," "God sent it by an angel," "it came from heaven." Sometimes the answers graze the lie direct; and the whole process may easily become a lesson in falsehood, evasion, and insincerity. There are many reasons for believing that the plain, simple, direct answer of truth is, on the whole, the most satisfactory. Many parents already have from the first told their little ones simply the fact that the baby grew under mother's heart, as a chicken grows in an egg, and that she then gave it life apart, at cost of great pain. Of course the children thus instructed will speak of what they know to others and will shock adults with their direct and matter-of-fact way of talking; but no injurious results will come. Indeed the parents win at once the confidence of the child and the mother is loved all the more when her sacrifice is even dimly understood. This is the testimony of numerous competent parents who have, with some misgivings at first, given this method a fair trial.

Adults are very apt to have groundless and unreasonable anxieties about this method because they are ignorant of the psychology of childhood and falsely imagine as existing in the minds of young children feelings which never come into consciousness until puberty arrives. The words which excite specific appe-

tite in an adult have no such effect when used by a person under ten years of age.

That which stimulates the adult sexually leaves the sexually immature child completely indifferent. Therefore one can talk with them about these matters very well in a certain way, and give them information without stirring in them specific sexual feelings.⁷

As the child grows older, especially if, as in the country, it plays with pets or goes about in fields with domestic animals, it is likely to inquire as to the part of the father in the origin of the child. Here again the rational interest is best satisfied by the truth. To tell a lie is corrupting; to evade the question is to send the eager child to some unfit teacher and to destroy confidence between parent and child. Surely there is nothing shameful in the relation, and it should never be treated as a mystery of doubtful significance. The child owes its very being to the father as well as to the mother and should be told this by father and mother when asked. Perhaps this general statement will meet the demands of the searching intellect for several years; after that the whole truth must be told in season. The most difficult and critical question usually comes later, but may at any time be urged under the pressure of some unexpected discovery, as the copulation of domestic animals, although this for a long time may have no meaning beyond a play for the child's mind.

It seems impossible to give any general rule on this subject except the pedagogic principle already stated: the interest of the child in asking a question indicates the stage of mental development at which the information should be given, but no more than is necessary to quiet the mental unrest.

It is manifestly desirable that the young inquirer should be trained to seek this kind of information *only* from the parents or person distinctly authorized by them, but best of all father and mother alone. Nor should this be difficult. In such matters as bathing, dressing, and meeting the demands of nature in urination and movement of the bowels it is not difficult to train the child to go only to the mother for help. The sense of modesty is easily developed under favorable conditions where the residence has enough rooms to furnish privacy. In tenement houses the communistic

⁷ Forel, *Die sexuelle Frage*, p. 512.

publicity of personal contacts turns the whole task of cultivating protective modesty into a tragedy. In any case the child should, as far as possible, on certain subjects live in an atmosphere of absolute and intimate confidence with parents. Wherever such intimacy and confidence are secured and maintained the child will be willing to wait for a while for information which it is not yet ripe to receive. And this is often highly desirable, because the mind should be prepared gradually for receiving information in respect to the origin of human life and the actions of parents which tend to a birth.

This preparation is commonly made by ordinary superficial observation of the anatomy, growth, and reproduction of plants and of domestic animals. Even in a city nature reveals its cycles of birth, development, reproduction, death, new generations. With the extension of small parks, with their flowers, trees, and zoölogical cages or gardens, this kind of knowledge grows more common in cities; on farms the daily life of children makes them familiar with the whole story. And it is precisely in the country, even without scientific instruction, that children grow up with that healthy view of reproductive processes which protects them in some degree from moral peril, and therefore the sexual appetite is less excited and abnormal than in cities.

But if common observation is valuable, exact and scientific observation would be better. Hence the value of nature-study in this connection; for this introduction to the knowledge of the phenomena of living organisms gives the child a more precise and accurate idea of the alimentary, circulatory, nervous, and reproductive systems of living bodies, and answers indirectly questions about human reproduction which it would be awkward to answer directly.⁸

SECTION 2.—*Puberty and early adolescence—boys.*—It is highly desirable that parents should so direct, guide, and teach their boys that the school teacher may be spared the necessity of giving instruction. Thus intelligent parents could aid the boy very much to pass through the inevitable struggles of adolescence (1) by

⁸ Cf. on this subject a valuable little book, Dr. med. Julian Marcuse, *Grundzüge einer sexuellenpädagogik in der häuslichen Erziehung*, Munich, 1908 (45 pages). As to how Helen Keller, blind-mute, was taught the origin of life in man, see her autobiography (passage cited by Dr. Marcuse, p. 283, 284).

requiring the observance of a few sensible measures of personal hygiene—frequent bathing, swimming, loose clothing, side pockets in trousers, hard bed with not too much cover, well-ventilated bedroom with windows open all the year, total abstinence from alcohol, tobacco, coffee, and tea, moderation in use of meat; (2) by helping the lad to avoid mental pictures of salacious nature, vulgar and obscene companions, pornographic circulars, vile dramatic entertainments, debasing fiction; (3) by awakening and stimulating enjoyment of outdoor life, in both sport and useful work, and so placing an emphasis on the normal boy's desire for physical superiority, industrial efficiency, social consideration. The boy should go to bed at a regular hour and be required to get out of bed the moment he is called and to come down at once. The morning hour in bed is often a moment of severe temptation; (4) by giving him stories of chivalry, in which the youth makes protection of girls and women a part of religion and honor and is induced to regard the soiling of feminine character as beneath contempt; (5) by so frankly, honestly, and completely meeting the questions of the lad about his body that no vague region of mystery shall remain as a haunt of spectral fear or prurient curiosity, so that no quack advertisement can ever gain his credence, and so that he will know a little in advance the nature of the sexual changes through which he is to pass.

When the right time arrives the boy needs to be told that he should not excite erections artificially by any sort of friction, as this will tend in some degree to form a habit difficult to break and which may seriously injure him if carried too far; that the emission of semen in sleep, accompanied more or less by dreams, must not trouble him or cause a second thought of anxiety, being merely a natural indication that he is slowly growing into manhood, though for many years will not be fully mature. Under all circumstances the boy should be taught to refrain from talking with others about matters of sex, but to talk with perfect freedom with his parents when he needs to know anything, and that if he suffers pain or weakness none but the trusted family physician should be consulted, and that without shame.⁹

⁹ See G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence*; and his paper in *Transactions of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, 1908, pp. 195 ff., as well as other papers in the same volume.

But how many years must elapse before we can hope for such instruction and training by parents to become general? This consideration leads us to inquire what, if anything, the school can do to help parents and boys in this difficult situation.

Separate Instruction of Boys and Girls After About the Twelfth Year

At present we are in an experimental stage in regard to methods of instruction in matters of sex; and it is probably too early to anticipate the results of experiments now under trial in different countries. Some teachers of youth believe that boys and girls at the beginning of puberty, or before, should be taught in separate classes, at least in such subjects as biology and human physiology and hygiene, and by teachers of their own sex. They believe that instruction given under these conditions can be made more clear, plain, explicit, accurate, scientific, and that the discussions of pupils in the higher grades will be more free.

Other teachers, even in Germany, favor frank instruction in mixed classes in biology and hygiene and claim that it is done by many teachers without embarrassment or injury. They reason that if the young people are separated for such instruction it is surrounded with an air of mystery and evil, as if there were something debasing *per se* in the facts of sex, and that this very mystery debases the tone of thought and feeling on the subject.

Perhaps, since we cannot come to a general agreement at once on this point, we must continue to work as local circumstances permit, with a careful regard not to offend local public sentiment. In some regions it would be impossible to introduce these subjects in mixed classes without stirring revolt and opposition and retarding real progress for decades of years; in some cities a good beginning has been made without perceptible difficulty. No responsible superintendent will move forward faster than public opinion will warrant. Foolhardiness is not courage.

Some instruction every boy has a right to receive from his school teachers, in part from suitable persons of his own sex, even if it is necessary to call in a school physician. This necessary minimum of instruction is best given, however, as a natural part of instruction in biology, hygiene, morals, history, and literature.

In some way every boy should learn in his school the necessity of cleanliness of the entire body, the avoidance of needless friction and excitement, of open-air sports and exercise, of treating girls and women with modesty and respect, of chivalry in guarding innocence, of the effects of vice and baseness on offspring in the future.

I say this much at least should be taught boys in school before and at puberty, because for most of them it is their only chance to learn, and because at this time the school itself offers temptations before judgment and conscience have been formed. If public opinion among parents will not permit teachers to give this minimum of instruction orally, then the school authorities should call parents and physicians together, discuss with them the necessity for such information, and force the responsibility upon them.

Agricultural Schools

Forel recommends for boys the rural school home (*Landerziehungsheim*), established by Reddie in England, by Leitz in Germany, and by Frey and Zuberbuehler in Switzerland. These schools are based on ideas of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, Owen, etc.¹⁰ Such schools must be for exceptional cases, as private boarding-schools; but public schools, especially in villages and the country, can introduce many of their features, and some have begun to do so. In order to bring out other phases of methods with boys we cite here several important passages from competent authors. We may add here the counsels of a thoughtful medical man:

The work is especially difficult, as it deals with the individual in that critical period which attends the awakening of sex. During adolescence the boy becomes conscious of the stirring of certain sensations and impulses which center in the sex organs and which may become intrusive in their claim upon his attention. Unless he has been enlightened as to the meaning and true use of the sex function and the necessity of its restraint, he is apt to regard these impulses as a sufficient guide for its exercise. It is at this period, also, that curiosity in regard to sex reaches its highest curve, and it is important that it should not be fed from poisonous sources. The social tradition which prohibits sound scientific teaching in sex, entirely

¹⁰ Forel, *The Method of Ascertaining Results of Education, Without or in Addition to Examinations*.

ignores the existence of those secret undercurrents of corrupt knowledge which everywhere circulate. From these sources the vast majority of adolescents become indoctrinated with certain erroneous ideas of the sex function and sex relationship which are most pernicious in their influence upon character and conduct: (1) That the purpose of the sex function is sensual pleasure; (2) that one has a natural right to indulge his sensual impulse as he pleases; (3) that such indulgence is a physical necessity, essential to the preservation of virility; (4) that chastity is not possible under the conditions in which the majority of young men live; (5) that this need is recognized in the setting apart of a certain class of women as instruments of sensual pleasure—all dangerous doctrines and absolutely untrue.

The state, through its educational system, has usurped the functions of parents by concerning itself with the correction of defects of sight, hearing, breathing, as well as the organs concerned in the mastication of food. If these physical defects interfere with the intellectual capacity of the pupil, disorders of the reproductive system are, in many cases at least, no less active causes of the backwardness of children. The important relation of the sex function to mental and physical development cannot be too strongly emphasized, and the effects upon the mind are often more marked than upon the body. Boys who suffer from sexual disorders are apt to be restless, dull, or listless, with an inability to concentrate their minds upon their studies. Memory is impaired, and their capacity for mental work is diminished. There is no other physical cause which has such a pronounced effect upon the morale of the individual as sexual disorders.

The dangers of the habit at an early age before the secretion of semen, and the consequent loss of seminal fluid occurs, are manifest in local irritation of the bladder and urethra, and often in general irritability and instability of the nervous system from repeated nervous shock. If the habit is continued the results are depression, vertigo, palpitations, often a sense of fornication along the spine or other portions of the cutaneous surface, accompanied with marked neurasthenic symptoms. It is often the cause of pollutions and spermatorrhoea.

While epilepsy, insanity, idiocy, etc., have been alleged as the result of this habit, it is probable that they are seldom developed except in cases where there exists a marked predisposition to these diseases. Unquestionably many of the more serious results formerly ascribed to masturbation are grossly exaggerated by quacks for selfish and mercenary purposes; on the other hand there is a tendency on the part of reputable authorities to gloss over and minimize the ill effects.

As regards the specific diseases incident to sexual vice, the experience of physicians both in private and public practice shows that these diseases

are not infrequently contracted through attempted sexual intercourse by boys in their early teens, and, exceptionally at an almost incredibly early age. This precocity of sexual vice is most often seen in street boys and among the classes that visit the dispensaries. Specific diseases are more often contracted by boys from sexual perverts who use them in an unnatural way.

The teaching of purity has long been practiced by various purity federations and leagues both in this country and abroad. While too much credit cannot be given the high motives which actuate this teaching, it may be questioned whether the method employed is the wisest and best. The inculcation of purity as an abstract principle, without an understanding of the bodily conditions to which it relates, often fails of effect. Unfortunately, in these exhortations to purity the impression is often given that the whole question of sex is unclean, something shameful and even sinful; further, that punishment for sexual sin is reserved for the hereafter. Unfortunately the penalty is not sufficiently proximate to act as a deterrent. The force of this teaching would be enhanced by perfect intelligence of the laws of sex and their relation to physical health and well-being. Sensuality is a sin against the body which always carries its punishment with it, and cannot be atoned for. The individual is punished by his sins, and the penalty is personal and often immediate.

The teachings of science in regard to the sex function are always in accordance with the physical interests of the individual. Who shall teach the teachers is largely a pedagogic problem. There is no doubt an urgent need for the organization of a course of special training for teachers for this work. In my opinion no better solution of the problem could be found than the establishment in schools of pedagogy of a special course of instruction in the difficult art of teaching a delicate subject.¹¹

The effect of the use of tobacco on young lads, though not so serious as that of alcohol and certain drugs, seems to be serious.

Some candid cigarette smokers will admit that the practice creates a liking for the effects of alcohol. . . . Further, writers of authority say: "It is said to induce premature puberty; by its depressing and disturbing effects on the nerve centers it increases sexual propensities and leads to secret practices, while permanently imperiling virile powers."¹²

¹¹ Educational Pamphlet No. 4, *The Boy Problem*, by a member of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

¹² Alfred A. Woodhull, A.M., M.D., LL.D. (Prin.), sometime lecturer on personal hygiene and general sanitation, Princeton University, in *American Health*, September, 1908, p. 37.

A very suggestive book by an eminent English teacher brings out certain aspects of our problem in a helpful way:

One or two broad principles may be laid down. The first is that matter is not evil. The time-honoured doctrine which affirms the contrary is, it is true, less confidently stated than formerly, and physical science with its revelation of the nature of our bodies—scarcely less than Christian teaching as to their destiny—has saved us from any formulated heresy in these days. Yet it remains a fact that in the popular view of this subject there is much that tends to depreciate one of the greatest of all divine or natural laws—the law of the propagation of life. To a lover of nature no less than to a convinced Christian the subject ought to wear an aspect not only negatively innocent but positively beautiful. It is a recurrent miracle and yet the very type and embodiment of law; and it may be confidently affirmed that in spite of the blundering of many generations there is nothing in a normally constituted child's mind which refuses to take in the subject from this point of view, *provided that the right presentation of it is the first.*

This, then, is the first principle to be grasped, that there is nothing in natural law which may not be spiritualized in its presentation to a child. The second is that the first presentation of this particular subject is the one which prevails over all others.

The third principle concerns the procedure to be adopted. The teaching must not be isolated, but given simply as illustrating laws of nature about which something is already known. And if the facts are to be imparted so as to throw light upon other facts, the methods of teaching should be in no way peculiar, but the same as those which are found effectual in other subjects. Observation and reflection will generally tell us when a child begins to feel a curiosity about the fact of birth—when he silently discards the fables or myths with which his questions earlier in life were satisfied. The time, in the case of an ordinarily apprehensive mind, will be somewhere between eight and eleven years: and it is no objection to this rule that some children in the upper classes pass through their teens in total and contented ignorance of the whole mystery. This discussion would never have arisen unless such children were the exception. We are considering the majority. And in proceeding from the known to the unknown we shall take into account that the fact of maternity is much earlier guessed at than that of paternity. Therefore the teaching on the former ought to be made the starting-point for the teaching which deals with the latter, but of this I will speak again later.

Reference is made to the animal world just so far as the child's knowledge extends, so as to prevent the new facts from being viewed in isolation,

but the main emphasis is laid on this feeling for his mother and the instinct which exists in nearly all children of reverence due to the maternal relation; in the hope that use may be made of the natural reserve which forbids a light and careless handling of this topic among schoolboys. Of the two methods the former is more scientific, the latter is more personal, appealing to the deeper emotions of the child's heart. Which is the best?

In answering this some account must be taken of the prevailing shyness or reserve which exists between parents and children, especially on the father's side, in relation to such subjects as this. It might be supposed that the more scientific method of instruction would from its quasi-impersonal character, be less difficult for a father to employ than the other, which invariably leads him onto sacred ground. But in practice this would not be found to be the case. The crux of the question is the personal application of the facts presented; and if that application is shirked the value of the lessons will be in many cases lost; the boy will learn some interesting botanical laws, but he will not connect them with human beings until he is a good deal older, and by that time the mischief will have been done. It is true a boy of scientific propensities and precocious reasoning powers will connect the two subjects pretty readily at an early age—say, fourteen—but something more is required than simply correlation with other facts. Knowledge by itself may suggest counsels of prudence, but it has long ago been discovered by schoolmasters that prudential warnings by themselves are quite impotent against an imperious appetite of any kind. And if a father, desirous of beginning with the easier part of the subject, adopts the botanical illustrations in order to lead up to a personal appeal, he will find that his difficulty, when he comes to the point, has been very slightly diminished by the scientific preamble. Perhaps it may be thought that too much account is here taken of the shyness of a parent with his own son. Nevertheless it is really incontestable that this national characteristic has always been the grand obstacle to the giving of salutary instruction of this sort to the young.

The real answer to the question between the two methods is that they ought to be combined, and that by far the greater stress should be laid on the personal appeal, which certainly ought to precede any formal scientific teaching about the propagation of life. It may reasonably be asserted that the wholesome impressions of childhood, which consciously and vividly last through life, are those made by one or both of these influences. And we want both.

The truth of these statements, however, will be easier to gauge if I now proceed to give more in detail the nature of the teaching which seems to be required.

At some time between eight and eleven years of age, in any case before a child leaves home, the fact of maternity should be explained. Probably he will know that as regards domestic animals there is some kind of law of offspring being born from the mother's body. In any case it is very easy to remind him of scattered facts, either within his cognizance or on the confines of it, which enable him to understand that this is a universal law. For a year or two in most cases, not in all, he will have been realizing that there is some mystery about the matter, and that his nurse and parents have ceased to put off his curiosity with tales of fairies, etc. So he is eager and fully prepared to hear that there is an explanation; and as far as the maternal side of the subject is concerned it should be simply stated, with emphasis laid on the suffering involved to his mother, and the wonderful fact given as a reason why the mother so dearly loves her son. And it would be well to go farther and indicate the period of gestation, and explain the phrase in the Litany and some well-known passages in the Bible. It is a perfectly simple matter, and beyond all doubt a supremely natural process of instructing, and, as far as I know, never fails of its reward, to wit, a closer link of union between mother and child, and an implanting of a deep reverence in the child's mind for the greatest of all natural laws and for the parental relation.

But when puberty comes on, the problem changes. We may assume that the early teaching has been effectual in saving the boy from evil imaginations as well as from sins of word and deed: and yet when the passions begin to be roused by bodily growth it is quite certain that fresh guidance will be needed. To begin with, some years may have passed and the effect of the preliminary teaching may partly be worn away. So a very special supplementary warning is required, which, if possible, should be given by the father, and should take the form of an appeal to the boy's consciousness of germinating manhood; every effort being made, as in the previous talk, to inspire him with the feeling of the dignity of human life and of the laws of life. Not only is this a bracing and a wholesome tone to adopt, but it is so natural as to be almost easy, certainly as compared with the tone of mere warning, which by itself is full of the dangers of suggestion.

It is of great importance that the lad be not depressed or frightened. Everything possible should be said and done to give him belief in himself and in his Maker. Nothing but harm comes of convincing a boy that he is a failure, and we do not want a lot of young Englishmen to be going about apologizing for their own existence. So the first thing to do is to explain the meaning of temptation—as in many cases God's method of training the character to be strong—and then to show how the young man preparing himself for life must know how to go forth to meet his boyish trials like

a soldier advancing to battle, almost rejoicing that his enemy is strong because he feels sure that he can overcome him. Thus when he feels the approach of his foe he can recognize the call to use the strength within him that it may grow by conflict and victory: because he perceives that now is the moment when he is going to be further equipped for the welfare of life, and on it perhaps depends the question whether he will grow into a warrior or into a slave. He should be told that his will which he thinks weak is really quite strong enough for any number of trials, if only he knows their meaning and is not frightened or fascinated by them.

Little need be said in the way of deterrent. If a father has once obtained an avowal of the fact there is little doubt that in most cases the shame of it is felt and a few grave words about the sully of the thoughts and of the heart are all that is necessary, unless there is reason to believe that a certain callousness exists which must at all costs be broken through. Even then I doubt the wisdom of saying much about physical ill effects, as to which considerable divergence of opinion exists among doctors. The exhortations should be of such a kind as to make the boy see the meaning of the trial, and the paramount importance not so much of being victorious as of being ever hopeful, persevering, and resolute to do exactly what he is told by way of safeguard; and above all to put away the unclean thing from his thoughts and forget any failure that may occur as speedily as possible.

Confirmation is of course the time when schoolmasters get to learn something of the graver side of boy life, and the reason why it is so precious to them is that it allows them to rely on sound and bracing thoughts instead of barren denunciation and abortive appeals to the will, which the boy knows perfectly well is too weak for the work it has to do.

Indeed there is something awe-inspiring in the innocent readiness of little children to learn the explanation of by far the greatest fact within the horizon of their minds. The way they receive it, with native reverence, truthfulness of understanding, and guileless delicacy, is nothing short of a revelation of the never ceasing bounty of Nature, who endows successive generations of children with this instinctive ear for the deep harmonies of her laws. People sometimes speak of the indescribable beauty of children's innocence, and insist that there is nothing which calls for more constant thanksgiving than their influence on mankind. But I will venture to say that no one quite knows what it is who has foregone the privilege of being the first to set before them the true meaning of life and birth and the mystery of their own being.

By way of a tentative suggestion I would point out that there seems to be a natural division of labor between the two parents. Suppose the

mother takes upon herself to lay the foundation of the knowledge at about eight or nine years of age; there remains a necessary caution to be given to boys towards the time of puberty, which, properly speaking, ought to be somewhat medical in character, and this would seem to be the part either of the father or some trustworthy doctor. In a fairly large number of cases, after the early teaching, a very slight hint would be sufficient.¹³

Among educators the name of President G. Stanley Hall carries deserved weight, and for the suggestions he makes and the authority of their author, we print here certain relevant paragraphs applying to boys as well as to later adolescence:

Passing now to sexual pedagogy and regimen, the world presents probably no such opportunity to religion, the moralist, the teacher, the wise father, the doctor who is also a philosopher. There is no such state of utter plasticity, such hunger for vital knowledge, counsel, sound advice. Young men in other respects headstrong, obstinate, self-sufficient, and independent, are here guided by a hint, a veiled allusion, a chance word of wisdom. The wisest man I know in these matters and the most experienced, a physician and also a religious teacher, goes to audiences of young men at the end of the academic year, who have been unmoved by the best revivalists, who are losing power just in proportion as they neglect to know or prudishly ignore this field, and wins men by the score to both virtue and piety. I have sat at his feet and tried to learn the secret of his method. It is simple, direct, concise, and in substance this: In these overtense cases the mind must first of all be relieved of worry, and it must be explained that excessive anxiety and attention are the chief provocative of nocturnal orgasms. This is itself often a cure. Then the assurance that such experiences, varying greatly with different individuals in frequency, are normal, and that their entire absence would be ominous for sexual health, often comes as a gospel of joy to victims of ignorance, as does the knowledge that their case is common and not unique and exceptional. Personal examination by one who has seen thousands of cases and who can speak with an authority that commands confidence in most cases, reveals none of the grave or even mild ailments that had grown to such alarming proportions in the rank soil of youthful fancy. Diversion to objective interests or tasks that are active and absorbing, confirmation of wills that are not sufficiently established against occasional lapses by showing how fundamental sexual health and its irradiation are for domestic happiness, for a religious life and altruism, a few hygienic precepts concerning sleep, food, pure air, bathing,

¹³ E. Lyttleton, head-master of Eton College, *Training of the Young in Laws of Sex*, p. 68.

exercises, and regularity, and perhaps a little carefully selected biological reading, and in many, if not most cases, a wondrous change is wrought. Some describe their experience as having a great burden rolled off, a strain or chain removed; they seem to walk on air, feel themselves men again, their strength renewed, look back with self-pity upon their former folly, etc.

Ethical culture alone is very inadequate, and preaching or evangelistic work that ignores this evil is unsuccessful. Religion best meets these needs because it deals, if true, with what most affects the life of the young and what is the tap-root of so much that is best in them. Youth takes to religion at this age as its natural element. True conversion is as normal as the blossoming of a flower. The superiority of Christianity is that its corner-stone is love, and that it meets the needs of this most critical period of life as nothing else does. It is a synonym of maturity in altruism, and a religion that neglects this corner-stone, that is not helpful in this crisis, that is not entered upon now inevitably, is wanting. He is a poor psychologist of religion and a worse Christian teacher who, whether from ignorance or prudery, ignores or denies all this, or leaves the young to get on as best they may. Sex is a great psychic power which should be utilized for religion, which would be an inconceivably different thing without it, and one of the chief functions of the latter in the world is to normalize the former. Error blights the very roots of piety in the heart, atrophies the home-making faculties, and kills enthusiasm and altruism. Their curves of ascent and decline rise and fall together both in age and in normality, and very many church communicants are not what they would be but for some psycho-physical handicap of this nature. But *ubi virus, ibi virtus*. God and nature are benign, and recuperative agencies, in these years so supercharged with vitality, in cases that seem desperate, often act *cito, certe et jucunde*. The very excess of the physiological fecundating power in man which caused man's fall is so abounding that it may work his cure. Grave psychic discrasias due to passional states generally seem to be completely outgrown, and even gonorrhea and its sometimes persistent sequel, gleet, cannot usually long withstand nature's *vis reparatrix* if reinforced by a hygienic habit of life.

That this department of sexual hygiene has been almost criminally neglected, none can doubt. Family physicians are almost never consulted by boys, and the great majority of doctors know almost nothing about the whole subject save the standard modes of treating a few specific diseases with overt symptoms; while clergymen, who should be spiritual and moral guides, know perhaps still less, and have often come to regard as superior ethical purity and refinement the sloth and cowardice that dreads to grap-

ple with a repulsive and festering moral sore. While legislation is sadly needed for the protection of youth, instruction is no less imperative if the springs of heredity are to be kept pure. The blame rests mainly with the false, and, I believe, morbid modesty so common in this country in all that pertains to sex. At Williams College, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and Clark, I have made it a duty in my departmental teaching to speak very briefly but plainly to young men under my instruction, personally if I deemed it wise, and often, though here only in general terms, before student bodies, and I believe I have nowhere done more good, but it is a painful duty. It requires tact and some degree of hard and strenuous common-sense rather than technical knowledge. . . .

Some think, at least for girls, all that is needed can be taught by means of flowers and their fertilization, and that mature years will bring insight enough to apply it all to human life. Others would demonstrate on the cadaver so that in the presence of death knowledge may be given without passion. This I once saw in Paris, but cannot commend for general use. An evil of such dimensions will be cured by no newly discovered method or specific, but only by courageous application for generations of the many means already known for strengthening the physical and moral nature. Some would merely give simple, direct, and honest answers to honest questions, being careful to go no farther than satisfy so much curiosity as had been aroused. Others would begin at eight or ten, before passion had awakened, and with no reserve tell everything by charts about the origin of life. Others would make it all mystic and symbolic, and some would leave all to nature or accidental sources of information. It seems clear and certain that in our modern life something should be taught, and that betimes. This should, I believe, be chiefly personal, and by fathers to sons and by mothers to daughters. It should be concise and plain, yet with all needed tact and delicacy in well-chosen words. It should be very brief, and not spun out like the well-meant and goody books on the subject that should be boiled down to about one-fiftieth their size and cost. This probably ought to be the most inspiring of all topics to teach, as to the truly pure in heart it is the most beautiful of all. In twilight, before the open fire, in the morning, in some hour of farewell, on a birthday, or any opportune confidential time, this most sacred topic could be rescued from evil or be given abiding, good associations. The self-knowledge imparted that makes for health is perhaps almost the culminating function and duty of parenthood. It may be that in the future this kind of initiation will again become an art, and experts will tell us with more confidence how to do our duty to the manifold exigencies, types, and stages of youth, and instead of feeling baffled and

defeated, we shall see that this age and theme is the supreme opening for the highest pedagogy to do its best and most transforming work, as well as being the greatest of all opportunities for the teacher of religion.¹⁴

A physician, who does not betray his identity, elaborates in a pamphlet an address he gave at the fifty-ninth session of the American Medical Association¹⁵ which was heartily approved by eight well-known practitioners who discussed it. It was in the form of an address to adolescent boys. He says:

If a boy friend boasts to you of his sexual experience with girls, drop acquaintance with that boy at once; he is trying to corrupt your mind by lying to you. If a boy in an unguarded moment tries to entice you to masturbatic experiments, he insults you. Strike him at once and beat him as long as you can stand, etc. Forgive him in your mind, but never speak to him again. If he is the best fighter and beats you, take it as in a good cause. If a man scoundrel suggests indecent things, slug him with a stick or a stone or anything else at hand. Give him a scar that all may see, and if you are arrested, tell the judge all and he will approve your act, even if it is not lawful. If a villain shows you a filthy book or picture, snatch it and give it to the first policeman you meet and help him to find the wretch. If a vile woman invites you, and perhaps tells a plausible story of her downfall you cannot strike her, but think of a glittering poisonous snake. She is a degenerate and probably diseased, and even a touch may poison you and your children.

He explains briefly the working of gonotoxin, when it begins and when it reaches heart, kidneys, joints, eyes, brain, etc., describes buboes and chancre, and explains the horrors of the latter, warns against all doctors who advertise, and tells of their methods.

SECTION 3. *Puberty and early adolescence—girls.*—Here again, though in less degree, the school has a duty to perform. Only by knowledge of herself and of her danger can a girl protect her health and her virtue from the perils which constantly beset the unwary and the ignorant. Not much need be said, but that little is vital and may be brought in naturally in connection with instruction in personal hygiene and morality. If public opinion is perverse and if parents will not permit suitable oral instruction by

¹⁴ G. Stanley Hall, *The Psychology of Adolescence*, Vol. I, pp. 463, 464.

¹⁵ *The Boys' Venereal Peril*, Chicago, 1903, p. 35. See also Harvard monograph, *The Venereal Peril*; and Fournier's *Address to Sons on Attaining Their Eighteenth Year*.

women teachers, then public opinion must be changed by education, and the teaching profession has the first responsibility.

In our cities girls in the wage-earners' families, on the average, remain in school somewhat longer than the boys; but multitudes of them leave school before the high-school age and must be helped, if ever, at puberty. That so many go astray through sheer ignorance is not so wonderful as that so few are ruined. It is pitiful to watch the life of shop and factory girls of fourteen and beyond who are thrown in contact with moral perils of which neither family, church, nor school has given them warning.

A very excellent example of a lecture for girls is that of Dr. A. Heidenhain.¹⁸ This physician invited the mothers of girls in the public schools of working people to bring their daughters for scientific instruction in their nature and calling just at the time they were leaving school at about the fourteenth year of age. The lecture is illustrated by drawings of the female organs of reproduction, and the author tells in simple, honest words, as if each child was his own and had come to him for professional counsel, the meaning of reproduction, the development of the egg, the act of birth, the supply of breast milk, the duty of mother to child. If a girl suffers or sins after this lecture it is not from ignorance of the most vital facts.

Dr. Helen C. Putnam was asked to write counsels for mothers in teaching their young daughters. She replied: "I cannot. . . . It is an unnatural cramming, an artificiality. . . . Everything for the purpose you indicate that I have ever read in periodicals and pamphlets offended me. Regular education is the only reasonable, effective, safe method. Advise mothers to form a class for study under a *competent scientist*." This advice comes from a gifted woman physician. But is there not something to be said for a different view? How long before there will be enough "*competent scientists*" to instruct the millions of mothers by oral lessons? Meanwhile—what?

Dr. Alfred Fournier in his little book, *Pour nos filles*, p. 28, says:

You may well assert, ladies, that the moral law alone is able to accomplish something against this peril, and that the physicians would be rein-

¹⁸ *Sexuelle Belehrung der aus der Volksschule entlassenen Mädchen*, Leipzig, 1907, J. A. Barth.

forced, well reinforced in their crusade, if they had with them the educators of youth. They have the power to raise the moral level of future generations. In fact, the social question is confounded here as always and everywhere with the moral question.¹⁷

Dr. Fournier in writing his booklet for our daughters addresses it to their mothers when these shall consider that the counsels he gives are necessary; he addresses it particularly to the mothers of young working girls and says:

These are counsels that a mother and still more a father may experience some embarrassment in giving to a daughter, and these are counsels which a physician alone has ability to formulate, but which he is not at liberty to address to a young girl without the consent of her family. Therefore, mothers of families, and above all mothers of young working girls, read them these pages, and if, as we hope, you find them prepared for instruction and guidance against the many dangers which menace them, permit them to read this little work, which has no other purpose than to safeguard their interests.

The statement of Judge Julian W. Mack, whose distinguished services in one of the largest juvenile courts give his every word great weight, is suggestive to parents and teachers, both in respect to the necessity for the instruction of girls and the best methods of giving such instruction. It was printed in the *Ladies' Home Journal*, May, 1908.¹⁸

During a three-years' experience as judge of the Juvenile Court in Cook County there came before me several hundred cases of girls, ranging in age from seven to eighteen years, every one of whom had made a misstep. Their pitiful stories have impressed upon me the vital importance of two fundamental duties that fathers and mothers owe to their children:

First, that parents should at all times, from earliest childhood, have that priceless possession, the genuine confidence of their child: a confidence which will cause the child not merely to obey, but also to trust and to feel implicitly that the parent is at all times and under all circumstances the best friend, the most constant companion, and the wisest and most willing adviser.

Second, that, in order to earn and to deserve this confidence, parents must be frank in responding to the natural inquiries of their child; yea, more, they must divine the unspoken question at the right time, and answer

¹⁷ Cf. Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, chap. ii.

¹⁸ Cf. P. Zeuner, M.D., "The Prevention of Venereal Disease through Education," *Lancet-Clinic*, December 14, 1907, p. 573.

it clearly and in a manner that will invite further questions as the child develops into young womanhood.

I know the difficulties involved in this, even for the more intelligent and educated parents. But I know only too well that too many parents live in a fools' paradise of belief that their silence spells ignorance and innocence on the part of the children.

It cannot be too emphatically repeated that every child mingling with other children, whether in private or in public schools, is going to learn much even at the age of ten, and, in circles in which children are not carefully guarded, even as early as seven. The words picked up, the thoughts awakened, arouse the inquiring mind. If the silent inquiry be felt and responded to by the parents a relation is established which, developed by mutual confidences, throws a protecting mantle over the little one that in many cases will guard her for life. If the spoken or unspoken query be avoided or checked the first barrier is raised, which, followed by the conventional story, easily and quickly discovered to be untrue, destroys the child's faith in her mother. This may close her lips for all time and turn her to those who are always within reach and are only too ready to initiate her not only into a complete knowledge of but also into an experiment with the mysteries of life.

I do not for a moment assert that all girls make missteps because of this ignorance of the facts of life. Many of mature age realize not only the moral wrong but some of the physical consequences as well. Even they, however, are generally ignorant of the results of disease that too often follow the wrong step and of its permanent and terrible consequences.

The literature that the social hygiene societies are now spreading is to the average girl, as it is to the average parent, a sealed book. The girl who has enjoyed the confidence of her parents from childhood may be spared much of this knowledge, but to those girls who have not been strengthened by this complete mutual trust with the parent even these sad stories must be told.

Whenever a number of school children are in court for these wrongs one leader among the girls has invariably been found responsible for spreading the trouble. The boys instinctively recognize the difference in girls and know which are possible victims and which are not. From one of the schools located in an excellent region of Chicago came a girl of seventeen years of age. Her parents were an old couple, her sister a trained nurse, and her brother an excellent business man. This seventeen-year-old girl was the baby of the family and in their eyes an innocent child, the object of universal love. The family never suspected that instead of visiting one of her girl schoolmates after supper, as she said she did, she

was keeping an appointment with some of the neighborhood boys. Her influence led at least three other girls of from twelve to fifteen to follow in her footsteps. Two of her intimate friends were twins of the age of fifteen, and one took the keenest pleasure in these clandestine meetings. The other twin knew practically nothing about them, as not only the boys, but even the girls, recognized her innate modesty and refrained from mentioning them in her presence. The boys told me that they would be ashamed and afraid to make an indelicate suggestion in her presence, while they hesitated at nothing in the presence of the other twin and her companions.

None of these girls had the slightest knowledge of the physical consequences of their acts. They all realized, of course, that they were disobeying and deceiving their parents and otherwise doing wrong, but not one of them had ever been told anything about the origin of human life. As to whether this knowledge would have protected them or not I cannot be sure, but I believe, from my conversations with them and with their parents, that it would have done so. The incident became generally known in the school and caused a complete awakening of the parents in that section of the city to a realization of their obligations. The school is located at the border line between a section occupied by fairly well-to-do people and a section occupied by the poorer classes. Every one of the boys and girls involved in this trouble came from the well-to-do class.

In another case some half a dozen boys and half a dozen girls between the ages of ten and thirteen were involved. The leader here, again, was a girl of eleven years. She was one of the seven or eight children of a widow. This girl had never received the slightest instruction in these matters—in fact, she was the victim of parental neglect to such an extent that it became necessary to take her away from home.

In a small suburb of Chicago half a dozen high-school girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age made a regular practice of receiving a company of their male fellow-students at their respective homes on Thursday afternoons when the mothers were away attending their club meetings. These boys and girls were all of the so-called better classes and the mothers were intelligent women. In their club affairs these women had displayed an active interest in communal welfare, but they had forgotten to gain the full confidence of their daughters: not one of these girls had ever been told anything of the mystery of life, or understood the physical consequences of her act.

A group of seven little girls, from nine to twelve years of age, were the victims of a gray-haired scoundrel, all led on by a child of twelve, the first victim, who persuaded the others to follow her example. Candy and a few pennies were sufficient inducement in this case.

In another case, a group of half a dozen girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age made it a custom, after church on Sunday morning, to visit a man who gave them ice cream and played music for them, and the parents thought that they were going for a walk!

One little girl of nine years of age, who was kept in ignorance of these things by her parents, was the victim of more than a dozen boys, ranging in age from ten to sixteen. She was a beautiful, innocent child.

A widowed mother with two beautiful daughters of fifteen and seventeen made no attempt to instruct either of them. She was a weak, pleasure-loving woman, and the natural results followed. Both girls were faithful attendants at Sunday school and church, but were easy victims of their school companions. The younger girl was subsequently responsible for leading three of her girl Sunday-school mates into like adventures.

A mother disregarded some rumors that came to her about her eleven-year-old daughter. She pooh-poohed them, declaring that she knew her child, and that the child's "innocence" and ignorance were absolute protection to her. The mother's discovery of her mistake was something heart-breaking to witness.

Now what is the lesson to be derived from these and many like experiences? As I said before, one can never be sure that knowledge of the physical consequences will be complete protection to a girl. But that knowledge she should possess, and possess early as a first covering. While knowledge alone, without character, will never save, the fear of consequences will oftentimes brace up a weak girl to resist to the uttermost.

Some wise teachers have been able to impart much valuable information in the regular course in physiology and hygiene to high-school classes as a normal and natural part of the course without any undue emphasis. The task, however, is an extremely delicate one, and, except in the hands of the wisest and most experienced, is apt to be full of danger.

Instruction of this kind, particularly to those under the high-school age, must be individual; it cannot therefore be given by the already overburdened public-school teacher.

The greatest care must be exercised in imparting such knowledge. Many parents are unequal to the task and should call to their aid the wise family physician. Moreover, as the children whose parents cannot or will not instruct them or cause them to be instructed by the physician are a source of danger to the children of others; as children cannot be raised in hot-houses nor kept from contact with others—sooner or later most of them will go to school, public or private; as one vicious child will influence many companions, the importance of mothers' associations in connection with every school and every grade of the school cannot be too strongly urged.

Here can be gathered those responsible for the children's associates; here a wise parent can help the ignorant and thus build up a double barrier about her own child

The intelligent parents owe a double duty: they owe a duty to their own children and to other children, and the duty to the other children is not only from a humanitarian standpoint, to fill the place of the unworthy or ignorant parent, but indeed from the selfish standpoint: to protect their own children. Even the best and wisest mothers frequently blunder. The carefully-trained and only child of a most excellent woman created a great sensation in a select school in a Western city by immediately confiding all that she had learned at home to her schoolmates, male and female, with a good many embellishments.

An innate or inbred modesty not only makes a girl in every way lovely, but it is also her greatest shield: her sole completely reliable protection. A girl must be taught that to give even the tip of a finger to a boy is wrong; that she will awaken in him a desire which some boys at least will lose no opportunity to satisfy; but, further, she should be told why, and what it means.

Modesty and ignorance have too long been thought to be synonymous. Knowledge of the dangers may in itself check a growing forwardness; it cannot but strengthen and doubly shield those who are of pure thought.

Most girls of sixteen and upward do not, in my judgment, go wrong because of any ignorance of the consequences. They are led away by the excitement of the moment and are willing to take the risk. A girl who has been working all day in a factory or a store comes home at night worn out, only to find more work in assisting her mother in taking care of the little ones; her home is in the dismal regions of the city where the streets are very dirty, the lights dim, the air foul, and all the surroundings unattractive. She wants some of the happiness and brightness, the joy that is the birthright of every young girl, and she goes out in search of it. If the Settlements are near she will go to them and find in the classes and the clubs, the music and the dance, a happiness that she seeks. If the municipalities provide recreation centers, such as are afforded in the South Park system of Chicago, she will be attracted there, and under decent auspices she will find in the gymnasium, or the library, or the club-room, or the dance, the opportunity that she seeks.

But if these be not given, then, as she wanders along the streets she will be attracted where the lights are brightest and the sounds are gayest; to her untrained eye and ear brilliancy spells beauty. She seeks the companionship of the opposite sex: the saloon dance-hall provides not only this, but also the dance that she craves.

Is this poor girl to blame? Society itself, not fully awakened to its obligation, is responsible. To condemn and to destroy the bad is not enough: it must be replaced by the positive good: a living wage to the working-girl; a real preparation for life, including an industrial education and the knowledge of herself, for the schoolgirl; and the opportunities for healthful and pleasurable recreation, under decent influences and auspices, for everyone.¹⁹

SECTION 4. *High-school years and apprentices.*—The high school already renders a valuable service in relation to the habits and character of youth, and, so far as this special investigation is concerned, the results are generally very encouraging. There is abundant reason for believing that, on the whole, the American high-school girl is generally fully equipped to protect herself and determined to do so; and that the high-school boy in America treats girls and women with respect. Outdoor sports and industrial training, where these are wisely and generously provided, help to give outlet to energy, wholesome occupation to the mind, and freedom from irritation of the nervous system caused by too prolonged desk work. The rumors kept afloat by enemies of the public schools that they are centers of vice cannot be traced to any reliable source, and have very slight justification in the rare instances of scandal which are inevitable in the present state of human nature. Long and intimate acquaintance with town and city high schools, together with direct inquiry with well-informed persons in all parts of the Union, is the basis of this somewhat optimistic opinion.

The secret fraternities of high-school boys and girls, with their club houses inaccessible to the supervision of teachers and parents, are believed by school authorities to be a moral pest, and deserving of abolition. At the same time high-school authorities are unwise to assume a merely negative attitude; they are morally bound to furnish a substitute in gymnasium, playgrounds, sports, winter games, tool practice, sociable and literary and artistic entertainments, which will be even more attractive than the questionable secret resorts of the fraternity houses. The assemblies of little cliques of pupils are not so suitable to our democratic public schools

¹⁹ For an excellent discussion see Mme. Schmid-Jager, *De l'éducation de nos filles*, Lausanne, 1904.

as assemblies open, with the very best means of recreation and culture, to all members of the school. Very often the finest artistic talent belongs to those pupils who are too poor to pay the dues in a fraternity or private club.

The better modern high schools furnish the scientific foundation for knowledge of the sexual nature through their instruction in biology, botany, zoölogy, physiology, hygiene, and a sound physical culture to fortify the moral nature in its gymnastic and other exercises. We here insert statements by competent persons illustrating good methods.

Independently of the above question, "At what ages shall public schools instruct in the several details," whose answer further experimentation by teachers must settle, is the importance of a clear conception of the information to which youth is entitled for its own protection and the good of society. Two basic principles are: *Teach no evil*, and *Teach in time to preserve physical and moral well-being*. Every boy and girl has a claim to knowledge: (1) of the functions and hygiene of the chief organs of the body, including the reproductive system; (2) of the meaning of sex, marriage, home-making; of the sacredness of the prenatal life, the influences of heredity, and the consequent duty of right living even when young; of the responsibilities of parenthood. Mention has already been made of certain schools' demonstration of the wholesomeness, truthfulness, and practicability of the biologic method in preference to merely moral statements for impressing this knowledge, beginning in very early years; (3) that handling the organs of reproduction, except as necessary for cleanliness, injures sometimes health, and always mind, character, sense of honor, causing greater mental and moral harm as one grows older . . . ; (4) of the most prevalent contagious diseases, such as tuberculosis, syphilis, gonorrhea; their danger to every person as indicated by statistics of wide prevalence; their many methods of communication; including the fact that syphilis and gonorrhea exist almost universally among those leading immoral lives, a reason for avoiding such men and women as one avoids those with diphtheria, and smallpox; that they are more difficult to cure than any other contagious disease and that their harm is more far reaching; (5) of the normal phenomena of adolescence; the physiologic influence on health, mind and morals of clean thoughts, reading, conversation, entertainments, companions; the value of occupation and physical exercise in keeping thoughts and habits and health good; the avoidance of tobacco, alcoholic drinks (including patent medicines, many containing alcohol), the advertisements of "doctors" and remedies" found in newspapers, magazines, etc.

Every girl has a claim to instruction concerning the hygiene of menstruation, the function and sacredness of motherhood, and care of infants.

Every boy has a claim to instruction concerning the value of conscience and avoidance of ignorant and evil advisers in this matter; the sacredness of fatherhood, and the duty of protecting all girls and women from evil as he would his sister or his mother.²⁰

And further:

1. The physiology and hygiene of sex when successfully taught is an essential part of the course where it logically belongs. It must not be interjected.

2. Attention is specially given to preparing the pupils mind for human considerations by a carefully developed study of plant and animal phenomena.

3. The teachers have made special study of biologic subjects; and there are "special" or "departmental teachers" for pupils over ten years of age.

4. Beginning with cell reproduction, the course traces the evolution of sex along with other functions; it is not given undue prominence.

5. Pupils—boys and girls—follow this systematic course with interest, frankness, clean-mindedness, and evident benefit.

6. It has developed naturally, wholesomely, and so unconsciously that no comments and criticisms have been aroused among either parents or school authorities.

7. The trend of these special instructors is to give it at and just before puberty, i. e., from eleven to fifteen years of age.

The condition of public opinion in a town or city will determine what can be taught and the method of presentation.

In some places instruction must be given in classes for boys and girls separately; in others they are taught together; so far as the biological facts are concerned, without criticism of parents.

In certain places the more specific instruction may be given outside school hours, with the permission of school authorities and parents, when there is opposition to public instruction.

Night schools.—The urban night schools have already aided many immigrants to acquire our language, and enabled youth and adults to make up for former neglect or misfortune in relation to the elements of knowledge. These night schools furnish an opportunity for giving such knowledge of hygiene as is necessary for per-

²⁰ From Educational Pamphlet No. 2, *Instruction in the Physiology and Hygiene of Sex*, Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

sonal care of health and for the care of infants and the training of children and youth. The material and method of formal instruction in matters of sex have elsewhere been indicated.

Continuation schools.—We greet with satisfaction the recent movement to establish and maintain schools for youth, apprentices in trades, and employers of mercantile establishments. Factories and department stores are only to a limited extent open for sexual instruction of employees. Women's clubs and societies of social hygiene, in their attempts to gather the employees for this purpose have often met with insurmountable obstacles: the unwillingness of employers to give up the time of the wage-earners; the antagonism of the young people and of their parents; the resentment felt at the suggestion that they stand in any need of warning, and other difficulties. In the continuation schools there is a better opportunity of giving familiar lectures on "social hygiene" to young people exposed to extreme temptation and having little opportunity of learning what they most need to know. Women physicians can render a very great service to girls and young women in connection with the classes in domestic science, house-keeping arts, etc.

SECTION 5. *College years—young men.*—What would a father write to a son beginning college life? We cite a medical answer. He speaks of self-abuse as a passing error of early puberty, not so evil as represented by quacks, yet a habit to be cured as soon as possible.

The great temptation which you are sure to encounter is the foolish assertion that sexual congress is necessary for health—a most pernicious doctrine carefully kept alive by those who live upon the trade of prostitution either directly or indirectly. It is the opposite of the truth, for we know that the whole sexual apparatus, including all the brain and nerve centers involved, will remain normal permanently without intercourse. Moreover, it is known that hard work and clean reading repress passions, while idleness, unclean literature, and luxurious dramas excite them to an abnormal degree.

The prostitute herself lives in that life only nine years and one investigator says but five. Some say she dies of alcoholism, but the more common opinion is that the cause is gonorrhea. Most of them are degenerates—the female equivalent of the male criminal. Indeed they are mostly criminals themselves, of poor health, poor physique, neurasthenic, unable to

work, unable to resist the ravages of any disease, and consequently are easy victims of this one. In addition, they are generally of feeble intelligence uneducated, and unfit for civilization—the rejects—and it is degrading even to meet them. . . .

Live a clean, outdoor life, as active as circumstances permit, eat good food with sufficient animal ingredients, sleep at least nine hours a day—and your body will behave itself in every part. Don't worry over imaginary conditions; and believe me that sexual continence is normal. Above all, take my word for it, that the dreadful quack literature on sexual matters is mostly false, and is prepared by criminals for swindling purposes solely. Certain newspapers are public enemies in that they yearly absorb millions of dollars for advertising the sexual swindlers, and most of the money is filched from the pockets of mere boys.

Whenever a companion says he believes in a short life and a merry one, put him down as a fool and leave the room. The only good such people do is to enrich the undertakers. Your affectionate DAD.²²

All the points made in this excerpt are urged in an address to the students of the University of Pennsylvania by Robert N. Willson, M.D., who for over three years had acted as one of the physicians to the students of that great institution. His monograph is entitled *The Social Evil in University Life*, published by the Vir Publishing Company, Philadelphia. The book of Dr. W. S. Hall on *Reproduction and Sexual Hygiene* has special value for young men entering college, and the author has been very successful in treating this subject before audiences of young men in colleges.

VI. TRAINING OF TEACHERS

We have now offered evidence for the conclusion that the public schools cannot altogether escape responsibility for the education of children and youth in matters of the sexual life, and we have endeavored to show precisely the extent and limitations of this responsibility. It may be an open question whether a particular teacher ought to give any instruction whatever on the subject, even by casual allusion; but there is no room for reasonable doubt that every teacher should know the essential facts relating to this sphere of moral activity. The teacher needs this knowledge for personal guidance and safety, and also in order to understand the

²² "The Venereal Peril, a Letter from a Physician to His Son in College," *American Medicine*, Vol. I, No. 4, N. S., July, 1906, pp. 186-90.

difficulties, temptations, fears, hopes, dangers, and duties of the pupils. Only when a teacher knows the entire situation can he most wisely help children and youth by general hygiene, diversion of interests, outdoor sport, manual exercises, gymnastics, and also by elevation of ideals in the teaching of history, literature, and civics.

It seems clear that it is the duty of the state and of city school authorities to provide lectures and laboratory instruction for those teachers who have come to recognize the need. Nature-study, so far as it is genuinely scientific and not aesthetic, is simply a method of teaching physics, chemistry, botany, zoölogy, and biology; and it would seem that by means of courses in these sciences is the proper preparation for giving sound instruction in these fields to be applied. The teachers of public schools may be somewhat better fitted for their tasks, however interpreted, by lectures from physicians. Attendance on such lectures, when there is objection, should be voluntary and not required.

Forel²² urges the importance of understanding the nature and origin of inherited abnormalities (sadism, homo-sexuality, etc.). Sometimes a teacher may treat these rare and monstrous cases as if they were normal and could be educated out of their perversions. But since their disorder arises from a constitutional, innate, and inherited condition, the process of education does not reach the origin of the difficulty. All that a teacher can do is to discover the abnormal person and insist upon removal to an institution where he or she can have special treatment and not corrupt normal children and youth. This is work for physicians, not for teachers.

VII. PREPARATION OF YOUNG PARENTS FOR THEIR DUTIES

It is very generally agreed that, so far as possible, parents should instruct, warn, and train their own children in all matters of conduct, and, particularly, in relation to sexual life. But parents cannot know what to teach and how to train without first being taught. Under present conventional conditions no systematic arrangements are made to prepare parents for this part of their duty; it is neglected most of all. While the children and youth are growing up the whole matter is rigorously excluded by universal

²² *Die sexuelle Frage*, p. 526.

consent from family and school and Sunday-school instruction; the books on physiology and hygiene avoid the whole matter, as if there were no reproductive life, no sexual facts. The minister in his pulpit and pastoral ministrations is compelled by social conventions to touch the matter only in a very vague way, absolutely without fundamental and scientific information. The knowledge that is gained usually comes from ignorant, incompetent, and otherwise unfit persons, and in a way to surround the whole subject with a poisonous atmosphere. If the teaching profession, whose social function it is to prepare people for life, makes no provision for this vital matter, how are the parents to perform their duty? Who will teach them when the entire teaching profession avoids this task? The physicians have the knowledge but they are not consulted except in the crisis of pain, disease, serious perversion, and then the instruction comes too late, and it is out of all relation to the normal development of childhood and youth.

Herbert Spencer, in his essays on "Education," ridicules the folly of men who are enthusiastic students of the best methods of raising prize pigs, but consider the proper rearing of children beneath their manly dignity. Of one gap in our scheme of education he writes with acerbity:

If by some strange chance not a vestige of us descended to the remote future save a pile of our school books or some college examination papers, we may imagine how puzzled an antiquary of the period would be on finding in them no indication that the learners were ever likely to be parents. "This must have been the curriculum for their celibates," we may fancy him concluding. "I perceive here an elaborate preparation for many things: especially for reading the books of extinct nations and of coexisting nations (from which indeed it seems clear that these people had very little worth reading in their own tongue); but I find no reference whatever to the bringing up of children. They could not have been so absurd as to omit all training for this gravest of responsibilities. Evidently, then, this was the school course of one of their monastic orders."

But if this antiquarian should examine the textbooks on physiology and hygiene he would search in vain for any hint of the existence of that part of the human system on which the perpetuation of the human race depends, or for any guidance of youth in respect to the perils of the reproductive organs or their hygiene.

We must at this point give at least brief attention to the duty of the teaching profession in relation to this sacred task of parenthood.

The medical profession possesses the expert knowledge required, and its members are coming to recognize their obligation. But the present discussion is for educators rather than for physicians. To correct many of the worst abuses of sexual impulse all who influence childhood and youth should seek, so far as possible, to reveal to the young the far-reaching social significance of this impulse and of the reproductive activity in general. The severest temptation comes when merely selfish gratification is uppermost in thought. It should not be difficult to make clear to children and youth that the sexual motives find their larger significance in the perpetuation of the race; that the birth and nurture of children are the normal results of union of the sexes; that family affection and spiritual enjoyments of parents and children are to be thought of principally; that enfeebled and diseased parents injure the community and the nation; that conduct in youth, before marriage, has a direct bearing on the citizenship of the future. When the minds of the young are thus irradiated with the larger and finer ideals of morality, patriotism, and religion the inhibitory power of the will is increased when temptation comes.

The more general establishment of schools in which the arts of housekeeping are taught offers an opportunity for the preparation of girls for their future duties as wives and mothers. It does not seem at all difficult to extend the instruction in such classes to include the care of the mother herself before and after the birth of infants, the care of the baby, the elements of sick nursing, etc.

The special night-school and continuation-school courses already discussed afford opportunity for teaching young men their duties as future parents and the effect of their conduct before marriage on the health, efficiency, and character of their offspring, in connection with the teaching of physical science, hygiene, civics, literature, and history.

VIII. THE RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS

The really representative leaders of the church have always stood for sexual purity. Asceticism itself has often been an extreme reaction against the baseness and cruelty of unbridled appetite.

Religion, as presented in our age, sanctions the assured teachings of science and morality. We might therefore expect the aid of the powerful associations of religious spirit in this movement to educate the public conscience and bring to it the new light which has broken forth from the revelations of the medical profession. Numerous evidences indicate that this expectation will not be disappointed. The recent organizations for social service in several denominations are already considering this theme. The brotherhoods could undertake no more fraternal or chivalrous task than to enlist under the white cross banner for the protection of innocent childhood and pure womanhood.

The church classes of young men have in some places heard the authoritative lessons of high-minded medical men with reverence and profit. The Young Men's Christian Associations have conducted investigations, provided straight, manly addresses to boys and men, and, best of all, have in their athletic, educational, and religious work successfully fortified the better nature of their members and associates. Altogether the nobler day has dawned; a higher standard has been accepted and will be enforced by all the persuasions of teachers, pastors, journalists, physicians, and good women. Deeper than all, over all, is a spirit of holiness which leaves no man without an internal monitor, and whose eternal patience broods over the struggles of humanity in its age-long toil to discover and realize the divine purpose immanent in all history.

APPENDIX

To illustrate, extend, and confirm the principles advocated in the preceding pages we add summaries of discussions by very enlightened and competent persons in this country and abroad; partly in order that the argument may not rest on the experience and reflection of one person. Some repetition is unavoidable.

DISCUSSION OF GERMAN SOCIETY ON VENEREAL DISEASES

Perhaps one of the most instructive discussions in this department of education was that called out by a congress of the German Society for Fighting Venereal Diseases; and we cite the principal conclusions of the volume of proceedings. At the close of the congress one of the great medical specialists said:

I am glad to note the high degree of unanimity of this congress in respect to the question of sexual pedagogics and education, crowned with the conviction that the education of our youth, in order to lead to a sound sexual life, must, much more strongly than hitherto, emphasize strengthening of the body, the improvement of character and training of the will, the exaltation of the soul's life, and the inspiration of the spirit with higher values. That we have here to do with great and comprehensive problems of education, is clear to us all, but it will need more than another generation in order to translate into reality what sweeps before the vision of us all as the task of such an education.

Even in respect to sexual instruction in a narrow sense complete unanimity rules so far that we hold that such an instruction is urgently needed in general, and further, that along with the parents, who unfortunately on various grounds are only prepared to undertake this instruction in small numbers, the schools must carry the burden. We would show that the doctrine of reproduction in the plant and animal world should maintain its proper place in the range of biological instruction. Difference of opinion exists only in respect to this point: Can the affairs of sexual life of man himself, and especially the sexual act, be an object of instruction?

Here is, without doubt, the most important point of the whole problem. On one side is the wish to make accessible to youth, in place of the turbid sources of knowledge, the pure sources, and on the other hand the effort to mediate this knowledge without injury to modesty. Here there is a want

of clearness and a difficulty which does not seem to me, in the proceedings of our congress, yet to be removed. On this point further work and discussion must be given to the task.

Some things appear to me, however, according to the results of our discussion, even now completely ready for expression. Thus there is the generally acknowledged necessity of good instruction and warning to youth, at and after puberty; that is, to the graduates of the secondary schools and the pupils of the continuation and trade schools, and pupils of the higher classes of the higher schools, as well as to the girls who are about to leave school. The instruction of these groups is not only ready for expression, but also ripe for carrying into effect. It will be the duty of the authorities, now that the necessity for such an instruction is shown, to provide means to embody this instruction systematically in the entire system of education, and if this is not done, it will be the duty of our society to give an example to the authorities. It is our urgent duty, and also a duty of the state to promote the sexual education of the teachers in the public schools, as in the higher schools, and, since the universities and normal schools do not provide such instruction, provisionally to fill the gap by courses for teachers. Further, by social evenings with parents, bulletins, etc., we should educate parents for their task.¹

The conclusions of this same congress in 1907, were as follows:

The German Society for Fighting Venereal Diseases, in the interest of endangered health of the people, holds that a fundamental reform in sexual pedagogics is indispensable.

In this task the home and school must participate, the home by giving to the physical training a larger place than hitherto, and furnishing to the curious child, in respect to the question of the origin of life, an answer which corresponds to the childish understanding, but which is always true, and the school, while it also helps physical and moral development, along with the purely intellectual instruction, should also communicate in the ordinary programme of study accurate knowledge in respect to the elemental facts of the sexual life of plants, animals, and human beings.

Such instruction of the growing generation given in a way adapted to the understanding, and so as to guard modesty, imperceptibly woven in with ordinary instruction, and not going too much into details, will not cause injury, but rather prepares the ground for a sound and natural idea of the sexual life. Particular instruction as to the dangers of the sexual life and warning in respect to the dangers of venereal diseases, belongs, in the main, to the years of puberty. A systematic instruction is not possi-

¹ Blaschko, *Sexualpädagogik*, pp. 274, 275.

ble, however, while the teachers and parents, themselves, are not prepared to give it.

The first demand, therefore, is for the instruction of teachers in courses for teachers and candidates for teachers' positions in seminaries and universities, and of parents by means of social evenings and bulletins. But even today, the instruction of members of the higher classes, in the higher institutions of education, in continuation and trade schools, etc., can be given by pedagogically educated physicians and hygienically educated teachers, in a programme of general hygienic instruction. It is the duty of the higher school authorities, and of each state of the nation, to fix regulations for the material of instruction in different kinds of schools and for different ages.

In the same volume are various discussions by experts. We give some of the conclusions and arguments of individual speakers :

CONCLUSIONS OF MAX ENDERLIN, HEAD TEACHER OF MANNHEIM, ON
THE SUBJECT OF THE SEXUAL QUESTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. In consequence of the general knowledge of evils existing in the sexual-hygienic, and sexual-ethical field, in which we have discovered most serious injuries to our population, it is recognized more and more widely that, even in the education of the rising generation, something must be done in order to check these evil conditions and to avert from our youth the dangers which spring from them in respect to physical, spiritual, and moral development.

2. Education can perform its task in this field: (a) in the direct path by instruction in respect to the facts of sexual life, and (b) indirectly by suitable measures of sexual dietetics and general education.

(a) Sexual instruction.—The traditional secrecy with which, in home and school hitherto, all sexual matters have been treated is proved to us to be a great mistake. It even appears that it is one of the principal causes of the conditions of which we have so much to complain in the sexual life. In place of this we must henceforth provide instruction. By that we understand a simple, direct, and faithful explanation of all the questions which concern the origin and development of plants and animals and human beings. Sexual information offers a task in which the family and school must share.

In the school, the handling of sexual relations for the most part belongs to nature-study. The sexual material should not be treated as something apart, but must represent a factor in the system of biological phenomena, through which the maintenance and origin and increase of life is regulated, and so must be divided up through the other courses of the years

with other botanical, zoölogical, and anthropological instruction. Information in respect to the structure of the human organs of sex and the sexual act, as well as explanation of venereal diseases are naturally to be excluded from the public school. On the other hand, pupils must distinctly and forcibly be made aware of the importance of the undisturbed development of the sexual organs. In the treatment of the ethical side of the sexual questions, religion and the general moral teaching of history can render important services. These studies can help particularly when the sexual views are to be lifted out of the swamp of impure modes of thinking.

(b) *Measures of sexual dietetics and of general education.*—With special sexual information, there must go hand in hand an awakening of a sense of responsibility in the child, in relation to himself and society, and a strengthening of self-respect by all means which are suited to produce a certain pride in his physical powers and moral purity. Important, also, is an intensified physical culture. The afternoons should be largely free for play and exercise of sports. Adequate opportunity should be given to the pupil for hardening his body, for constant exercise in the control of the impulses of the senses, and to conquest of the demands of the body, and to the early subordination of his life of impulse to support the intellectual interests. The principal task of education is in the field of will and character. In order to diminish the hours of sitting, which favors the habit of self-abuse, we recommend in part the removal of instruction to the open air, into a garden or other open place. Further, we recommend for this purpose the transformation of certain studies into experimental exercises, which permit the child not merely passively but actively to advance his knowledge. A high importance must be given to work in the crafts, since it develops a strong force of will and fills the interest of the child with technical and artistic problems which tend to diminish an excess of sexual impulses.

Artistic education has a task, particularly for natural apprehension of what is of value in the sex life. Especially should the child be immunized against impure influences by being accustomed early to the nude in art and nature. Therefore the artistic representations of the human form, as nude, in monuments, sculptures, and the like should not be concealed from the pupil in the public schools. The same is true of the pure and chaste in the literature of romantic love. For this early habituation, the coeducation of boys and girls is to be recommended. In order to secure the co-operation of the parental home with the views of the school, in the field of sexual education, the institution of parents' associations is to be recommended; and in addition, the parents may be taught by bulletins, pamphlets, popular lectures, and articles in the press.

The right to give instruction in respect to sexual matters must be legally secured to the school.

More than one hundred and thirty years ago, the great educator, Salzmann, in his work, *Secret Sins of Youth*, proposed a plan of gradual instruction: "We speak first of the reproduction of plants, before we speak of the reproduction of mammals and human beings. We show the child the male and female blossoms of plants, and accustom them to the expressions, pollen, ovary, fruit, and so on, and show them how the pollen of the male blossom must fall on the female, if it is to bear fruit. In this way, we gain a method of speaking to the child without embarrassment of the male and female parts, of seed, conception, and the like, and these are accustomed, without shock, to hear these stories."

Modern knowledge has hardly surpassed these suggestions of method. It has been said that parents should communicate this knowledge, but only a small minority of parents are in possession of the knowledge to undertake giving information in this way, since only a few of them possess knowledge of physical science, which is necessary to consider the sexual problem of man in connection with the facts of reproduction about animals and plants, and to illustrate the similarity of the sexual processes in the entire kingdom of organic life. Often the parents have not the necessary pedagogical skill and the necessary freedom from embarrassment to speak with their children in respect to things which they have hitherto considered matters which are to be spoken of with shame. Therefore the school must give help.

Enderlin, as others, recommends that this instruction should be given in the course of nature-study. He insists that one or two hours of the week are not sufficient for such studies, and he urges that the hours for nature-study, in the schools of Germany, be increased. He speaks of the opposition of parents to this kind of instruction, and the tendency of teachers to refer such matters to the school physician. Admitting that the physician has a task, especially in connection with the older pupils and in individual cases, Enderlin insists that we have here to do essentially with an educational problem, and in this field, the teacher is the highest authority and should remain such. He further insists that only the teacher is in a position to give sexual instruction, in connection with other instruction. Only he can find the necessary points of contact, while if the duty is given to the physician, the sexual matters must be torn out of relation with the other branches of study.

The teacher can obtain the required knowledge, if he does not already possess it, without great difficulty. In the normal school, the natural-science foundation must be made so complete that it would not require great sacrifice, in order to add knowledge of this particular subject, and the questions of method should be easily answered by a teacher who is well grounded in pedagogic method. It must be said, however, that the teacher must have tact as well as knowledge. Personality counts for much. If the teacher cannot handle the matter without embarrassment before his pupils, he would better leave it alone. Enderlin insists that instruction, if it is not to fail in its purpose, must not be confined to the sexual life of man, but must be treated in connection with the facts of the renewal of organic life in general, and must be conceived as a special case in the great study of sexual activities and unfolding of powers, and therefore the sexual material will be divided in all of the annual courses of botanical, zoölogical, and anthropological instruction, and thus become merely a factor in the chain of biological phenomena, by which the maintenance, the rise, and the increase of life is regulated. Great care must be exercised to give information only as the child's mind is prepared for it. He insists that a sense of responsibility should be awakened, and the physical consequences of irritation of the parts be pointed out in connection with hygienic instruction. He urges that, in order to avoid too prolonged sitting, many forms of instruction can be given more actively and in the open air, in the school gardens, or in walks in the country. He sets a high value upon experimental work in physics and chemistry. He thinks that it is well to emphasize active effort on the part of the pupil much more than is now done; that the passive attitude toward books is injurious to the child. He criticizes the German custom of giving out lessons to be learned at home, and insists on the high value of play and sport.

CONCLUSIONS OF K. HÖLLER ON "THE DUTY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL."²

Youth must be instructed in respect to sexual matters, because,

(a) Sexuality is one of the sides of human nature which so strongly influences development that a clear knowledge of these relations is a necessary part of all general education.

² Cf. Konrad Höller, *Die sexuelle Frage und die Schule*, Leipzig, Nägele, 1907. On pp. 45-54 he gives a programme of biological studies for the fourth to the eighth school years, so far as sex instruction is concerned.

(b) Because it is impossible to keep youth up to the end of school years in ignorance of sexual affairs.

(c) Because, only by means of better language in respect to sexual matters can this be exalted above the plane of impure methods of thinking and speaking.

(d) Because it is the duty of education to send forth young people instructed in the physical and social dangers of the sex life.

2. The duty of the school is therefore:

(a) Not to carry on a contest with venereal diseases, and

(b) Not to heal the pupils who are sexually perverted; but

(c) To lift up the sexual field into the kingdom of the natural, and therefore of the unprejudiced and self-evident.

(d) The immunization, by instruction and physical hardening, against sexual perversion.

(e) The furnishing of natural, scientific foundations for later instruction, in respect to the natural use and in respect to the dangers to health and to social morality of the misuse of the sexual powers.

3. The hygienic instruction of girls is to be given at the end of the public-school course, and to boys at the end of the continuation-school period.

4. The handling of sexual matters is to be left to the instruction in biology. The ethical side of the question can be treated in medical and religious instruction.

5. Sexual instruction includes three divisions: preparation for offspring, fertilization and development of the germ, birth and rearing of young. The division of the material at the different stages and their arrangement in the studies of natural history must be made according to the time at the disposal of the particular schools and the mental condition of the pupils.

6. We must see to it that sexual instruction is put into the courses of preparation of teachers.

VIEWS OF MR. KEMSIES ³

1. The sexual instruction of youth is necessary in order to educate the race to avoid successfully the dangers of sexual perversion and excess.

2. Sexual instruction can be made the common property of youth only by means of the school.

3. The task of the school is to be limited only by considerations of prudence and regard for public opinion, so that we may not destroy the whole work by extreme demands.

4. All explanations in respect to venereal diseases are to be deferred to the period when the youth leaves school.

5. The duty of the middle school should be to communicate to grow-

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 103.

ing youth a natural and therefore a sound view of human reproduction and to protect the imaginative mind from precocious and unnatural vice. The probability that boys and girls will more and more be educated together speaks for the limitation of the task of the middle schools.

6. How can the middle schools communicate to growing youth a natural and therefore a sound view of the reproduction of human beings?

(a) A properly arranged plan of instruction in nature-study cannot pass over the reproduction and development of man.

(b) In the explanation of the analogies in the reproduction of all species thorough work can especially be done in botany and in the study of the lower animals.

(c) In the consideration of sexual matters of human beings we can take into account the fact that pupils who have been properly prepared by treatment of plants and animals can independently draw many inferences without the necessity of going too much into details.

(d) A minimum of what is to be communicated may be established beyond which especially capable and tactful teachers may independently go.

(e) Nature-study, with reference to sexual information, can be continued to the fifth school year.

7. How can the middle schools otherwise prepare youth for life and protect them from precocious and unnatural excess?

(a) The teachers of the different studies must discuss the multifarious cases where sex is touched in a natural way. We must emphatically protest against the skipping over of questions in school books where this matter is glimpsed.

(b) Opportunities are offered by German studies and by history, where we can treat the matter from the standpoint of art in a more fundamental manner.

(c) When the maintenance of a school library has added moral and unquestionable reading to the circle of ideas of the pupils, we must struggle against obscene literature.

(d) Young people should be urged to take part in all kinds of sport.

(e) Scientific information alone cannot protect from sexual error and a special emphasis must be laid upon education to self-control and a sense of duty.

THE VIEWS OF MR. KOESTER OF HAMBURG⁴

I. It is necessary that the growing youth should be instructed in relation to sexual matters. In this field, where the house and the school fail, an instructive book renders good service.

⁴*The Question of the Reading of Youth in Respect to Sexual Instruction*, p. 114.

2. Fiction is not adapted to instruction in these matters. Its field is psychological. It gives an introduction to the world of human feelings and especially to those of love.

3. Here the principle holds that children may read and hear all that is justly presented and which does not surpass their comprehension.

4. The reading of young children should not exclude every expression which relates to sexual affairs, as carrying and bearing of children and the like.

5. It is altogether false to keep from the growing youth all novels which handle the subject of love. On the contrary, youth must learn to know love and love stories which have a literary value, in order to guide the awakening feelings on the right path. The ordinary sensational stories, with their sentimentally extravagant feelings, are very injurious.

THE VIEWS OF DR. VON STEINEN ⁵

The plan of education of the higher schools has hitherto considered the life of sex as something not to be touched, and has neglected to give to the pupils, even after they have entered the age of puberty, a legitimate instruction in respect to the questions which are so vital to them. This method seems to us to be injurious. Almost all young people satisfy their desire for knowledge at unclean sources, and in that way their imagination on these things is poisoned with a hateful touch of secrecy, of the piquant, and even of the coarse. By suggestion and example, many among them, by compelling power, are led to self-abuse or to precocious satisfaction of sexual desires with prostitutes, from which diseases arise. It is urged that persons leaving school, and still under the authority of the school, should be instructed in regard to sex hygiene by suitable medical men in lectures. Such lectures are necessary: (a) In the interest of general education, for which the examination of high-school pupils should be a guarantee. Without knowledge of the physiology of reproduction, a profound view of the life of the world cannot be gained. The development of the life in family and state depends upon such knowledge. (b) In the interest of the health of the graduates. According to Blaschko's statistics, no group of the population is so affected by venereal diseases as the students of the universities. In Berlin, as high as 25 per cent. have venereal diseases. Very many young people are deceived and strengthened in their belief by base suggestions that emission makes sexual intercourse a hygienic duty, and therefore they come, because their proper counselors withhold information, to the house of ill fame, lose the charm of their sexual purity, and draw diseases upon themselves.

⁵ *Lectures before Graduates of Higher Classes*, pp. 135-38.

(c) The state has a powerful interest in having those who go from the higher schools, the ministers, the judges, the teachers, and the medical men sexually sound and ready to influence, by their example, the wide circles of society with a high conception of family life.

In fact, such lectures to graduates of high schools as have been given in years past in Düsseldorf, Frankfurt, Elberfeld-Barmen, Braunschweig, Gladbach, and elsewhere, have been given without any difficulty arising, and leaving a remarkably good impression on all who participated. The scholars voluntarily attended and preserved a proper attitude to the subjects, and found the instruction entirely natural. The parents expressed entire satisfaction. The school directors and the teachers, particularly the religious teachers of different confessions, who attended the lectures, expressed their great satisfaction in respect to the effect, and the wish that such lectures should become a permanent arrangement.

A. The principal value is in the scientific representation of the physiology of reproduction. The organs of reproduction are explained, as to their structure, by means of schematic drawings. Their products, the cell, and the egg, and the fertilization of the egg, with the wonderful process of mitosis, afford very welcome material. Conception, the carrying of young, and birth may decently be discussed in scientific form without difficulty. The personal moral responsibility of the individual in respect to sexual intercourse is understood of itself from the presentation. The paternal and the maternal cells, quantitatively alike, have worked together to produce a new organism, which now, according to the methods of division, in respect to its smallest elements, continues under the successive influence of each germ cell. The individual man is a member of a chain. On his conduct depends the weal or woe of succeeding members of society. Alcohol and syphilis debase the germ. Wholesome conduct and sexual purity improve it. The sex impulse has its proper and natural end only in the principle of reproduction. According to this standpoint, the educated man will learn to control himself. For a man of our culture period, the normal form of sexual intercourse is monogamy. By that means, family education is guaranteed to the child. Single union with the woman of one's choice is the ideal. The sexual impulse which impels to this end keeps alive the highest physical and spiritual forces. In the temporary repression of merely sensual impulses is the highest form of exercising self-control. The omission of satisfaction of sex is not injurious to the health of a sound man. Emissions with dreams are the normal and safe release of the collected material of reproduction.

Unnatural satisfaction of sex, that is self-abuse and purchased satisfaction with conscious suppression of the reproductive principle in the house of ill-fame, leads to serious injury of health.

There follows a moderate and short description of the exhaustion of the nerves in self-abuse, as well as in venereal diseases. The individual, therefore, must learn to hold the urgent sexual impulses under control by hygienic measures. In this connection some brief but powerful medical counsels are given, with respect to the exercises of the will, the water cure, abstinence from alcohol, the surrounding interests, etc.

B. Great importance must be attached to good preparation and a carefully selected form. The lecture is the first one which the graduate is to hear. The parents should have their attention called by a circular to the significance of the lecture, and it should be left to them whether they will send their sons or not. The lecture takes place in a hall. When several high schools are in a city, it is well to unite the graduates of all at such a lecture. It is natural to have the directors and some teachers present. The presence of the fathers is not essential. The best time is that between the written examinations and graduation. Only physicians, and never a minister or a teacher, should give this lecture. The hygienic principle must be the controlling one. The physician understands this material completely and he is accustomed to handle it in a natural and unembarrassed way. These lectures are to be recommended to all friends of the movement.

CONCLUSIONS OF DR. W. FUERSTENHEIM OF BERLIN⁶

1. The sexual instruction of graduates comes too late.
2. Sexual instruction, even for the lower classes, should be given.
3. This instruction must be prepared through nature-study in relation to reproduction and its organs in animals and plants.
4. This instruction should be given by a physician, where possible, in the general course on health.
5. This instruction, after a short physiological and anatomical introduction, should refer to the dangers which the sex life brings with it: (a) Of excessive, improper, and precocious use of the organs, and (b) of venereal diseases.
6. This instruction should warn against foolish prejudices, as (a) that self-control is unmanly; (b) that the power of reproduction is lost by not using the organs; (c) that continence is otherwise injurious to health.
7. This instruction must protect modesty, and so must avoid: (a) detailed description of the sexual act; (b) detailed description of preventive methods, and (c) commerce with prostitutes.
8. This instruction must guard against extravagance, as: (a) from any artificial idealization of sexual intercourse, or (b) any extravagance in respect to injurious consequences.

⁶ *Op. cit.*

9. This instruction should recommend continence; and special medical advice should be obtained before the beginning of the course, and immediately where venereal disease is suspected.

10. This instruction should work: (a) upon the will by reference to the danger to the young mother, to the destiny of the child, to the teachings of history in respect to the value of continence in relation to the welfare of the state, and the value of self-control in respect to one's own person and his posterity; and (b) to the strengthening of the will by these means: hardening the system, physical and psychical; so called gymnastics of the feelings; diversion, that is, busying oneself with earnest matters and the development of one's own interests; exertion, spiritual work, sport, play, and gymnastics, and avoidance of dangerous influences, alcohol, vicious society, and reading. This instruction should form a part of the general course of instruction. The conclusion furnishes an introduction to sexual instruction of the younger members of high schools. In the instruction of youth it is desirable, first, to warn against the fear of chastity. There is a widespread superstition that precocious intercourse is favorable to the development of the sex organs. The organs are developed and maintained without our interference. Precocious demands upon them interfere with this development, and lead to precocious exhaustion. Diseases of continence are unknown. Complete sexual maturity, in our race, comes somewhat late; (c) by warning against the false impression concerning emissions. Such appearances are no cause for anxiety. They are signs of a beginning but not of a complete sexual maturity. They are not a signal that one must go to a woman, but rather a natural vent, so that one does not need this. Over-excitation of the organs in a mechanical way or by imagination is to be avoided. It leads to exaggeration of impulse and weakening of the power to withstand, to excessive loss of semen, to conditions of exhaustion, and so to nervousness, and unfitness for earnest work; (d) by warnings against lack of independence and curiosity. Not an irresistible impulse, but curiosity, sometimes the loss of will force on one side and temptation on the other, leads to precocious sexual intercourse. To the temptation, as to the scorn and ridicule of foolish friends, we must oppose a manly and earnest opposition, which is based on an insight into the consequences of one's own conduct, and therefore a fundamental principle must be developed.

In the second place, (a) in respect to the advantages of continence: this is easiest when the necessity is known in time, and the gymnastics of the feelings is earnestly carried out. It is promoted by sport, temperance, and earnest work. It gives men health, freshness, inner repose, and outward security. Think of the civil importance of self-control, the fate of the

old empires; (b) responsibility in respect to the girl; the unhappy position of the unmarried young mother in her family and in society; the duty of support; the fate of the unmarried, according to recent investigations; mortality; criminality; (c) the danger of venereal diseases; their extraordinary diffusion; short representation of the kinds of diseases; danger to the central nervous system: to other persons through further infection; to the offspring through inheritance. Preventive measures are often good, but are in the highest degree inadequate. Cleanliness is also here the principal thing. It is urgently recommended that before one has sexual intercourse he should take medical counsel. In case of sickness, a false modesty is out of place. Dangers of alcohol. A great part of infection occurs in drunkenness.

In the third place, the things to be avoided are: (a) the description of the sex organs and the sexual act which goes into details; (b) the details of prostitution; (c) the representation of preventive means.

CONCLUSIONS OF FRAU PROF. E. KRUKENBERG⁷

THE DUTY OF THE MOTHER AND OF THE HOME

1. Special instruction is not necessary, where we have in the home fathers and mothers who have sound and pure perceptions, and who tell, whenever they have the opportunity, the truth to their children, at the right time and in a suitable form.

2. The purpose of instruction must be to educate such fathers and mothers, so that instruction from other directions may become more and more superfluous.

3. The home has an advantage over the school in the following respects. It can introduce instruction imperceptibly, and on occasion; it can fit the instruction to the individual child, according to its stage of development; and it can, in advance, avert false representations.

4. The home destroys the work of the school, very often, through a prudish, unnatural secrecy, or through frivolous laughter and remarks of double meaning, in respect to that which the child learns in school.

5. The aim of instruction is often perverted. Fanatics for instruction very frequently discuss sexual matters too much, and with too much emphasis. Prolonged discussion of the matter, as shown in many books of instruction, is to be avoided. Short, clear answers are generally sufficient. Too prolonged questioning in youth is to be avoided by imperceptible transition to other themes of speech. If there is continued inquiry, then the answer must be faithful to the truth, but always brief, and as something natural and self-evident.

6. The vice of self-abuse, without mentioning its name, must be pre-

⁷ *Op. cit.*, pp. 27-29.

vented before school life begins: (a) through observation of the child by the mother; (b) by proper position in sleep; (c) through warning of danger to health; (d) through warning against perversion by school comrades,

7. Before the parental home is left, young men should be instructed in respect to the dangers of sexual intercourse, outside of marriage. Better than a personal interview, in many cases, is a pamphlet or a book. A brief appeal to the feeling of honor, and a sense of responsibility in respect to the bride and children of the future, should be urged personally.

8. Girls, who go out to wage-earning work must be warned, perhaps through a pamphlet.

9. Young girls, who remain at home, do not need detailed instruction in respect to venereal diseases, prostitution, and the like. For them, it is sufficient: (a) to declare menstruation is a necessary phenomenon, in order to secure material which is necessary for the formation of a new living being; (b) to describe a marriage for money, or support, as a sin against nature, and as a degradation for all life; (c) to teach them that to abandon themselves to men before marriage is the cause of many diseases to women and children; (d) to insist that they must regard health and purity for their own sake, and for their future children, as a duty, or, in case they do not marry, that they may be sound and efficient for a calling. This latter suggestion may help them, when they have no prospect of marriage, which unfortunately, under existing conditions, is not always possible.

10. Instruction at home does not demand much time, but only a wholesome, pure apprehension, on the part of the parents, and a bond of mutual relation between mother and child. Both of these we find in the simple conditions of life, especially in the country.

A CONSERVATIVE VIEW BY DR. F. W. FÖRSTER (ZÜRICH)⁸

It is the so-called old ethics, that view of the sex life, which has always been represented by all the deeper religion and philosophy, and which has expressed itself outwardly in the absolute prohibition of all extramarital sexual connections. This prohibition is only a symbol of the underlying conception that the sexual appetite is not to have its own way, but should be ruled strictly by the total system of life.

Förster sums up his conclusions thus:⁹

1. By sexual pedagogics we are to understand that education and instruction by which youth is enabled to subordinate the sexual life to the demands and needs which spring from hygiene, social responsibility, and the spiritual nature of man.

⁸ *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., 1907, pp. 214 ff.

⁹ *Leitsätze*, pp. 242-49.

2. This pedagogical activity has to keep in mind these two starting-points: (a) intellectual enlightenment in respect to the facts, dangers, and responsibilities of the sexual life. It is a demand which cannot be set aside that in the place of the ever more cynical and merely sensual information of the street should be introduced the pedagogical and hygienic instruction of teacher and physician. This instruction can handle the physiological basis of the sex life in connection with studies of plants and animals, but it should precisely in this field distinguish sharply between animals and man, and take pains to show clearly that in the lower planes of life the instincts of sexual functions give the order and rule, while in human beings the spirit and conscience are destined to assume control, the animal is subject to the impulse of propagation, while the impulse of propagation should be the servant of man; (b) the education of the life of feeling—awakening of care for others, charity, sympathy, and sense of responsibility—not only by instruction but especially by practice in home and school. Important as intellectual instruction is, it is helpless without the support of all the higher powers of the soul; precisely because the sexual impulses are so strong, the corrective effort must be exerted through the emotional and motor centers. Sexual impulses must come under the control of social feelings, of devotion, chivalry, and charity, and then only will they be deprived of their blind natural power and be set in place with the higher requirements of social culture; (c) education of the imagination. It is well known that sensuality gains its greatest motive force when fancy stimulates it. Therefore it is a vital requirement of sexual pedagogics, from the beginning to fill the imagination with living pictures out of the higher ideal world of humanity and so to draw away phantasy from the service of sense. Art education and religious influence have here their unique task. It is also important to call the attention of young people directly to the hygiene and dietetics of the phantasy in relation to sex; (d) education of the will. Here arises the most important task of sexual education. Neither ethical nor hygienic instruction gains a proper influence in conduct, when the will has not power to remain true to the higher ideals in presence of impulses and illusions. How many invalids perish because, in spite of clear knowledge, they have not the will force to carry out any form of cure! Therefore the culture and exercise of the will must stand in the foreground of all sexual pedagogics. We can utilize the life of appetite for food and the tendencies to laziness, narrowness, anger, and impatience in order to train youth to subordinate body to spirit. The will requires education! Gymnastics, trade practice, household work have a value in sexual pedagogics because they exercise the child and youth in spiritual control over physical actions.

3. Sexual pedagogics may not be isolated from the rest of the life of

youth. If it is so isolated there is danger of concentrating too much attention on the sexual sphere. Weakness of will, degradation of phantasy, and abandonment of thought in this field can be corrected only by giving to character-building a place above intellectual cramming in the whole life of school and home. It is not desirable nor necessary to go into much detail in instruction about sexual matters; it is sufficient to show that certain general, well-established convictions and modes of thinking, feeling, and willing must be set up against this sphere and thus find their severest test.

Förster quotes Pestalozzi's *Lienhard und Gertrud*, where the reformer Amer is described:

Amer based his legislation against the perversities of the sexual impulse, from flirtation to child murder, on this foundation: before this appetite awakes be prepared against its assaults by exercise in thoughtfulness and order. When the sexual impulse arose it found the house civilly washed and adorned and the master of the house had power to accustom the bad spirit to the pure order which ruled the house, and at any time when it raged to lay a chain on it.

The position of Förster was regarded as somewhat extreme, austere, and impracticable by some members of this German congress; it seemed to some of the physicians a little visionary and not to give a large enough place to direct, explicit, and detailed anatomical, physiological, and hygienic instruction. So Dr. med. Julian Marcuse (Ebenhausen-München) said openly (p. 263):

This discussion before this congress has been about the questions of how, where, and who. Dr. Förster has undertaken to throw overboard all the results yet reached and in their place to set religious education and the religious factor. Instruction in his view has only a limited place, only the development of plants and animals will he teach, but when it comes to man he would omit every sort of mention of even the most natural and elementary facts. He would refuse all utilization of scientific knowledge, the results of investigation and discovery, all real relations.

VIEWS OF DR. MED. MARTIN CHOTZEN (BRESLAU)¹⁰

Dr. Chotzen mentions several plans: one, a course of lectures by a physician at meetings of teachers with voluntary attendance, illustrated with wall drawings, with opportunity for written ques-

¹⁰ *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., pp. 300 ff.

tions at the close, not signed by the questioner. He gives his syllabus of seven lectures (two each week):

- I. Purpose of this series of lectures.
 1. Introduction to the study of sexual hygiene with the object:
 - a) the knowledge of those factors in which the influence of the teacher may make itself felt;
 - b) the explanation of the importance of the sex question for the school, the family, and the state;
 - c) further use of the appropriate literature in independent study;
 2. Development, structure, and function of the male and female organs of sex.
- II. Description of the phenomena of puberty and the attending facts. Rise of the sexual appetite.
- III. Control of impulses. Pathological manifestations.
- IV. Influence of education on control of impulses and their pathological manifestations.
- V. Impulse of sex and of propagation. The moral and economical significance of marriage for the individual. Error of the hygienic necessity for pre-marital sexual intercourse. Error of the "right to motherhood."
- VI. Moral and economic importance of marriage for the state. The Malthusian anxiety about over-population; the consequences of prevention of conception.
- VII. The effect of sexual diseases on the sick person, on his surroundings, and on marriage. The bearings of public and secret prostitution in relation to public health. The influence of education on the conduct of youth and adults of both sexes in sexual matters. Education to development of self-control in enjoyments—even in sexual gratification, and consciousness of responsibility; knowledge of the moral value of chastity up to entrance upon marriage.

He sought to show the relations of the reproductive system to the entire organism, blood vessels, nerves, and to show that the sex impulse is innate, which like any other innate impulse must be guided in the right and moral path.

SEX INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS¹

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FACTS INDICATING THE NEED

Social Diseases and Marriage by Dr. Prince A. Morrow is an authoritative, scholarly, readable volume that should be in the library of every institution training teachers. No one undertaking the responsibility of preparing children for citizenship, whether as parents or as teachers, is justified in ignorance of the facts concerning the prevalence of the micro-organisms of Neisser and of Schaudinn, and the appalling results to wifehood and childhood—in the last analysis to modern nations as to ancient ones.

Less expensive summaries of facts, causes, prevention, are to be found in educational pamphlets which every teacher should own, issued by the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, whose membership includes leading conservative medical authorities, biologists, statesmen, lawyers, social workers, and educators; and which, co-operating with similar scientific bodies in Europe, undertakes a campaign against "the great black plague" not less, but, if possible, more needed than that against "the great white plague," tuberculosis.

The increase in this country during the last quarter-century of these devastating diseases is unquestionably due to ignorance concerning them. The first step in preventive education is knowledge of the fact that unchastity (illegal sex relations), the commonest means of infection, occurring in from 40 to 90 per cent. of males, renders this percentage a menace to the family and society; that 20 per cent. of infections occur before the twentieth year, the largest percentage before the twenty-fifth;² that physical and mental

¹ This paper, prepared for this Handbook, represents the point of view of a high-minded woman, a teacher, and an eminent physician.

² Cf. Morrow.

habits in childhood, the result of misinformation, ignorance, and thwarted normal interest in the origin of life lay the foundation of future sexual errors; that a formidable world-wide trade is financially engaged in promoting vice, which can be destroyed only by popular insistence; that it is a companion of the saloon business; and that much of the real estate occupied by brothels and saloons is found at the tax assessor's office to be the property of men and women high in social consideration—again the question of “tainted money,” to be solved only by popular education.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS

Which class, parents or teachers, shall educate children so that present practices, with resulting widely extended invalidism, mortality, childlessness, and degeneracy, shall be checked is indicated by the fact that parenthood rarely confers the ability to train twentieth-century citizens; a very large part of recent legislative and social endeavor concerning ignorance and idleness, vice, intemperance, and child labor being focused on parental incapacity. One logical interpretation of parents' omission to instruct in the physiology and hygiene of sex is that they connect it with vulgar ideas and embarrassments, and would spare their children—a creditable motive, but a state of mind tragically wrong. Such parental misinformation passed on to children *perpetuates vice, disease, mistakes, and sorrow quite as often as does ignoring the subject.*

We have courses for training teachers, not parents. The educators' problem is to create the first generation of fathers and mothers whose understanding of elementary laws of life (biologic laws) places sex information on a scientific plane, simple *but true*, instead of the plane of ignorant traditions. “One must know what is true in order to do what is right.” Thereafter school instruction in biologic laws will not be questioned, and homes will co-operate. Such parents, like the few already informed, will understand that the child's questions about sex and new life, almost invariably beginning before four years of age, are the natural and fitting opportunities to anticipate future misinformation by truthfully responding to the temporary interest (so long as satisfied it is only temporary), thus inviting him to the same source for information next time. Untruthfulness, mystery, prohibition, embarrassment alienate confidence effectually.

Society needs co-operation by schools in this as in other education for which an earlier civilization found homes sufficient. The first undertaking must be preparation of teachers, whose information hitherto, and consequent mental attitude, has been for the most part no better than that of parents.

SCHOOL ATTEMPTS

From conversations with a large number of educators while investigating the teaching of hygiene in twenty-five of our most progressive cities, I believe it well within the truth to say that a majority, after a few years' experience, become anxiously alive to the need for sex instruction among their pupils, but are handicapped by popular and official prejudices and by personal unpreparedness; that they believe nature-study affords normal channels for the necessary information; while some see that domestic science (better called "home-making") properly taught also offers an invaluable opportunity for constructive work with both boys and girls.

A few instructors in nature-study and in home-making are demonstrating the possibilities. A study of their methods and results is worth more than theorizing. The use of pamphlets for private reading, personal interviews, lectures by physicians and other outsiders I found so unsatisfactory to educators that the reader is referred to fuller discussion of these methods.⁸ Parents' clubs in a few schools were useful to a limited degree in this as in other lines needing home co-operation.

ILLUSTRATIVE COURSES

Where sex instruction is successfully given it presents four characteristics: (a) it attacks the subject indirectly (so far as children and outsiders know); (b) it is constructive, not made up of negations; teaching about good, not about evil; (c) it is based on natural laws universal throughout organic life; (d) its method is invariably the "laboratory method"—not textbooks and memorizing; (e) the teachers are "departmental," giving the chief part of their time to elementary science, including "domestic science" or "nature-study."

⁸ *Bulletin of the American Academy of Medicine*, April, 1906; *Transactions of the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, Putnam.

Assuming that nature-study and domestic science, already widely introduced, have come to stay, we note that sex instruction adds no new branch; rather, it co-ordinates details with this social need.

A course in the seventh and eighth grades.—The instructor had supplemented her normal training with special study of physics, chemistry, and biology at Chicago and Cornell universities. The material was magnifying glasses, school garden, living specimens in schoolroom, excursions.

With the seventh grade she began a "continued story," "The story of the world we live in," during one hour once or twice weekly. The first hour was given to attractive chemical experiments illustrating gases, vapors ("chaos"), condensation into solids, cooling, some of the properties of water, light, and heat.

This year's work was then led from the simplest forms of plant life to the complex with the motto frequently repeated: "The two objects of every living thing are to perfect itself and to reproduce itself." For every plant these two objects were the lines of study. Very early the terms "mother plant" and "father plant" were introduced, with allied terms in plant and animal "families." Reproduction in yeast cells, spirogyra and vaucheria, and in higher plant forms by spores, seeds, pollination, were seen and drawn by the children. Equal attention was given to other details, reproduction being but one among several lines of observation. The children were actively interested for they themselves were seeing and doing.

In the eighth grade the study along the same lines, perfection and reproduction, utilized insects, birds, white mice, tadpoles, etc., kept in vivariums, cages, and aquariums for daily observation. A government fish hatchery was visited and the pupils saw the details of artificial propagation. Economic and sociologic as well as hygienic and physiologic principles were talked over.

The instructor is confident that "clean living" was helped.

There were two boys two or three years older than the others. They were precocious and unclean minded. It could be seen in their faces at the beginning of the lessons. I had no private talk with them, but at certain points I took pains to have them understand. There was a complete mental revolution and moral, too. I know from their manner. They are clean, good boys now, and twice as bright.

A course in last year of grammar and first year of high school.—The instructor was a biologist with the degree of M.A., and with a

normal training. The material was microscopes, living specimens collected on excursions or from school garden, or growing in the room; a small museum. The time was two hours daily for one year.

The evolution of the vegetative functions, respiration, circulation, digestion and nutrition, elimination, and reproduction, was traced from protozoa through organisms of increasing complexity to man. By observation they learned the correlated anatomy, physiology, and functioning together—economy of effort—and only so much of it as was essential to elementary understanding of their importance to the life of the individual, but definite and clear as far as they went.

Near the end of their course the instructor gave them a "sex talk," recalling the progression of the function of reproduction from single-cell life to mammals (rabbits), reminding them of the evolution of the "home" and parental care and affection (phenomena that had impressed them greatly in their specimens); and telling them of necessity, even as children, of active, healthy, honorable lives, with no concealments, for the sake of their future homes, reminding them of the heredity they had seen in their studies. Germ diseases had already been spoken of in connection with unicellular life, and mention was now made of the prevalence among practically all immoral men and women of communicable germs that blight the lives of innocent as well as of evil people, who should be shunned as one does smallpox. The avoidance of alcoholic drinks, almost always a part of such lives, was emphasized.

RESULTS

The instructor watched results from this experiment in science closely during the following weeks, and is wholly assured that with no exception they were wholesome. The clear-eyed enthusiasm, spontaneous and eager, begging for the privilege of working over time, continued to the end. Their curiosity had been frankly answered by tracing law through its evolution. This seems the normal path for finite minds to climb to truth, specially when befouled by ignorant tradition. The difficulties are not with the young. A child's clear mind knows no embarrassments until the clouds of ignorance in some older one cast these shadows there.

The instructor noted also marked growth in initiative and self-reliance, gentleness and thoughtfulness. There is no better training in truthfulness than this drill of reporting verbally and in writing what one has done or seen. What is a better way of implanting reverence for the Maker of it all?

These pupils were required at intervals to review in a written paper definite lines of investigation. One set of papers traced the evolution of respiration, another, circulation. The papers on reproduction, just as written, were sent me, and portions are published with further details of this and other schools in the *Bulletin of the American Academy of Medicine*, April, 1906. I was particularly impressed by the excellent English, large vocabulary, logical thought, and grasp of subject.

All these supplementary effects of good work in the study of life itself are additional proof that a fundamental line of knowledge, well taught, re-enforces others and serves effectually for drill in the tools of knowledge—the three R's. Many teachers have told me that school gardens, the outdoor laboratories of nature-study, are invaluable for learning mathematics.

CHIEF DIFFICULTY AND OBJECT

It is harmful to distinguish this topic from the regular work, i. e., the mind must be guided to, through, and beyond it by logical progression. Biology offers this possibility to an ideal degree. Our stumbling block is the lack of elementary knowledge of it by superintendents, with the prevalent state of mind *re* sex subjects resulting. A less difficulty, one easily removed when superintendents require, is that the majority (not all) of biologic students are bound by academic methods, and need to arrange details for children with a view to plant in the public intelligence certain desirable trends of thought. To create popular appreciation that this gift of life, evolved straight down to each through innumerable predecessors, is a trust to be modified in his turn and passed on—or cut off—is not a difficult task for the biologist. Consciousness of it sinks into the child's mind while following the fascinating life-cycles of lower creatures, as does the fact of recurring seasons.

It must help to check trifling with one's own or another life, cutting them short by suicide, or by murder of the unborn—now

so ruthlessly common. One-quarter of all pregnancies end in abortions one-half of which are criminal, i. e., brought about, chiefly in our "respectable" classes, while a large part of the remainder is due to the *spirocheta pallida* of Schaudinn. The census of 1900 gives the infant death rate as 169.4 per 1,000 births. One eastern city has an infant mortality of 400 per 1,000, several 300, and over 100 cities have an infant mortality above 175 per 1,000 births. More than half is unnecessary. The reason for it is elementary ignorance among the products of our schools.

If growth of the child's mind epitomizes racial development, as physical growth before birth shows characteristic stages of evolution from single-celled life to mammals, we need to rearrange our artificial curricula. Natural phenomena and industries were the primeval influences developing society. There is abundant evidence for believing that these, restored in formative years, will offer normal paths for guiding the child healthfully into the complicated institutions of present social organization, a laborious task through books and memorizing alone—too often cruelly disappointing.

WHAT TO TELL A CHILD

What a child should be told has been fairly indicated in the foregoing, but is further discussed in the *Educational Pamphlet for Teachers*, as is also the possibility of dealing with the practice of self-abuse.

The introduction of methods employing larger muscular mechanisms in greater degree, as in the garden, laboratory, and shop work of the sciences and industries, together with wise modification of "calisthenics" to include swimming, rowing, walking and running, target practice, team work and individual competition in games and historic dances is indispensable in engaging attention and nervous energy in wholesome directions. More open-air interests and more sanitary indoor life are factors.

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THE NINTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I HEALTH AND EDUCATION

BY

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THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE INDIANAPOLIS MEETING OF THE
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PREFACE

It is proposed in this *Yearbook* to consider briefly the different phases of educational administration, supervision, and instruction which have to do with health. Detailed and exhaustive treatment of the various topics enumerated under the several headings would fill several volumes.

The purpose then of this report is to present a synopsis of the field for the discussion of the Society and for the consideration of the teacher and general educator rather than the specialist in school hygiene or physical education.

Recognition is here given of assistance rendered in the preparation of this *Yearbook* by Dr. Edgar Fauver, Miss Caroline Crawford, Miss Mary Reesor, Miss Florence Healy, Miss Josephine Andrews, and Miss Jeanette Seibert.

INTRODUCTION

Health may be considered the keynote, the goal of effort, not only in school hygiene and sanitation, but in the entire physical education of the child, if the word health connotes not simply a normal state of the vegetative organism, but biologic soundness and completeness, present and potential, in respect to the racial as well as the social, industrial, and other obligations of the growing boy and girl. Health is the condition of the individual who is organically sound and who has the biologic basis for the attainment of completeness of body, completeness of mind, and completeness of character.

Health is not the end of life or education but it is an essential condition for the realization of worthy ends, more immediate or ultimate, in the career of the individual. The epigrammatic question may well be reiterated, "What shall it profit a child if he gain the whole world of knowledge and lose his health?" What may a child be allowed to accept, by those in any way responsible, in exchange for any actual or vital part of his health?

The people of this country are rapidly awakening to the appreciation of the national resources. The most important of all the nation's resources is the health of the people, and the most valuable asset in this capital of national vigor is the health of the children. It is the business of the nation to protect from harm at any cost the heirs of all the heritage of the past. During the schooling period the teachers become, as agents of the state, co-trustees with the parents in the great task of guarding, against injury or loss, those upon whom the entire future of the world depends.

Under the most favorable conditions the school is sure to be, in some respects an unhygienic and unsanitary place. Pupils are arbitrarily housed; deprived to a considerable and often serious extent, of fresh air and sunshine at an age when fresh air and sunshine are most important to them. They are confined to the school-room; compelled, oftentimes, to sit still and keep still when reasonable freedom of movement is absolutely necessary to self-expression and to balanced development. Scanty provision, if any, is made in most schools for the large activities of muscles and nerves which are as

essential in principle today as they ever were, for the development of the full complement of faculties which are needed for complete living.

The technical material of education, the elaborate processes of instruction, while intended for the welfare of the pupil, may be directly neglectful or subversive of the health interests of the individual child, if not of the majority.

Children are segregated in the schools from all parts of the community under conditions favorable for the collection and distribution of disease contagion at the age when they are most susceptible to such infection. The school then becomes an effective mechanism for the dissemination of disease infection. The most expert care can only partially reduce this danger.

Further, while under the present educational régime the pupil is taught many things, on the whole, and, in consideration of its relative importance, no subject is taught with less intelligence and skill, in more desultory and neglectful fashion than that which deals with health, and with the responsibility of the child in relation to health.

Finally, the very child, for whom the whole educational process exists, is often so handicapped by unrecognized physical defects as to diminish very materially, if not to nullify, the desired effects of educational effort.

If modern education is to fulfil in any worthy degree its complex of obligations to the child, to the home, and to society—in its relation to health—provision must be made in the school for the following phases of administration, supervision, and teaching:

I. The health condition of the pupil should be thoroughly investigated when he enters school and at intervals thereafter, indicated by the age and individual need of the child. Estimation should be made so far as may be possible of the pupil's capacity for biologic, mental, and moral development, so far as this is dependent upon physical condition and health status. The home should furnish information about personal history and habits of the pupil which may contribute to a better adjustment of the child's education and daily life at home or in school. Physical defects should be recognized and reported to the parents. If these defects are remediable the school should co-operate tactfully with the home for their care and

removal. The limitations, capacities, and tendencies of the individual should be understood as clearly as may be, and such knowledge should be utilized in every practicable way in the child's education. Daily and adequate inspection by teacher, nurse, and physician should insure all that is possible for control and prevention of infectious and contagious diseases.

II. The school environment should not only be free from deleterious influences but favorable in every material detail to the highest welfare of the pupil. All the features essential to the health of children—in the schoolhouse, its surroundings, construction, furnishings, and equipment—are within the power to provide, of practically every community in the country. The expense of the things which really affect the health of the pupil in school should be estimated in terms of child-life, child-health, child-efficiency, and only for convenience reduced to dollars and cents. The school should be made, and may be made, the most sanitary place in the community.

III. All the methods and materials of instruction, including the teacher even, should be wisely judged, selected, and adapted with partial and primary reference to their effect upon the health of the pupil. Nothing in modern education which is vital to the schooling of boys and girls need endanger, except through accident, the health and well-being of any pupil. The hygiene of instruction has received far too little attention.

IV. A dominant chord combining two main notes, in close harmony, should run through all the education of the child.

a) The teaching at every reasonable opportunity of the principles of healthful living as related to the individual, the home, and the community.

b) The inculcation in the pupil, by every practicable means, of hygienic habits, so that his conduct affecting himself and those about him may contribute to healthful and successful living.

V. Provision should be made in school for the physical training of the pupil. The child will engage in some of the desirable fundamental motor activities outside of the school in work or in play, at home or elsewhere. The improving curriculum requires progressively more of the large efforts of body and of the motor brain centers. It is the business of the school in physical education to

secure for the pupil that margin of neuro-muscular training, not otherwise provided, which is necessary to health and to the development of those mental, moral, and social qualities which are required for human efficiency in the large, and which are therefore necessary to complete and successful living.

HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

The health examinations of school children have two purposes:

I. To detect, at as early a stage as possible, cases of infectious and contagious disease, so that, by exclusion and isolation, the rest of the pupils and the community may be protected.

II. To discover physical defects and chronic ailments of importance, in order that the limitations of the pupil may be understood and that curable defects and disorders may receive appropriate attention.

If the state requires the unintermittent attendance at school of children from tender age onward for a period of six, seven or eight years, it incurs a large measure of direct responsibility for their physical welfare.¹

The day is nigh, perhaps, when the elementary school will have quite openly as its first great aim, the conquest of health and sanity for its children. The children are in many cases ill, and if not ailing themselves, are exposed every day to the risk of contact with disease and impurity. The new education discounts the results, however favorable on paper, of a system that ignores this. It recognizes that the creative power is within that gave us all we possess—that it reveals itself in the healthy, the growing, the vigorous, in whom the upward movement of life is not checked. In short, the new education is physiological.²

The investigation in school of the health condition of the pupil was undertaken at first for the purpose of detecting and isolating cases of contagious disease. In a few instances statistical studies were made to determine the effect of school life upon health. Comparatively early, investigations of eyesight were undertaken. Great credit is due to Dr. Cohn and others for thoroughgoing pioneer work in this field. Greater emphasis up to the present has been given, in the health examinations, to medical inspection for contagious and infectious diseases than to detection of chronic or permanent defects.

¹ Dawson, *German Workman*, p. 156.

² McMillan, *Labour and Childhood*.

Organized medical inspection was begun in various cities and countries as indicated below:

Brussels	1874	London	1891
Paris	1879	New York	1892
Antwerp	1882	Dresden	1893
Hungary	1887	Boston	1894
Moscow	1888	Wiesbaden	1896
Leipzig	1891	Japan	1896

In this country several types of state laws affecting medical inspection have been enacted:

- 1899. Connecticut passed a law requiring examinations of eyes in all schools.
- 1903. New Jersey passed a law permitting medical inspection in schools, authorizing the appointment of inspectors and outlining their duties.
- 1904. Vermont required by law examination of eyes, ears, and throats of school children.
- 1906. Massachusetts enacted a law making general medical inspection compulsory in all cities and towns.
- 1909. California enacted a law to "provide for health and development supervision in the public schools of the state of California." This is not a compulsory but a permissive law, intended to authorize boards of school trustees and boards of education to establish health and development supervision in all the public schools of the state. This is apparently the broadest and most comprehensive law relating to the school supervision of child-health which has been passed by any state.

Without state laws, the boards of health in New York, Utah, and California have provided for examinations of eyesight and hearing in the schools. Some form of medical inspection is in operation in about one hundred cities in the United States. At present there are between six and seven hundred regularly appointed school doctors in Germany. In the various forms of health examinations in European countries, much attention has been given to the investigation of physical defects. In the United States, up to the present time, outside of some half-dozen cities, little has been accomplished beyond the inspection for contagious diseases and rather desultory investigations of sight and hearing.

The most comprehensive and successful system of health examination and supervision is that of Wiesbaden. The Wiesbaden

system has become widely and favorably known and has been copied more or less fully by many cities not only in Germany, but in other countries.

About forty towns have adopted the Wiesbaden method *in toto*. In ten years one-fifth of all the German people have caused their children to be educated under the eyes of a school doctor. The whole movement seems to have united a great boldness with great confidence on the part of the people and of the school authorities. Though examinations are not compulsory, barely 4 per cent. of all parents have preferred to have children examined at home.

Information has not been flung away. In Leipzig three-fourths of the parents of delicate and diseased children act at once on advice offered. Only 3.5 per cent. neglect second warning. In Mülhausen and Berlin parents are invited to conferences of teachers and doctors.

To begin with, Wiesbaden not only respected the rights of parents; it began by taking them entirely into its confidence. A circular is sent out to every parent in the first year of every child's school life. It is really a long and confidential letter (very unlike the leaflets issued from time to time by some educational authorities). It runs as follows:

"For the better protection of the health of children attending the public schools, school doctors have been engaged to undertake the medical inspection of children on entering school, to be responsible for their health as long as they attend the school, and responsible, too, for the building itself from the point of view of the scholars' health.

"These provisions will be of great use both to the children and their parents. In the course of his education, much will be learned with regard to the health and bodily condition of each child, and this new knowledge, which is being gained now for the first time, the school doctors will put at the disposal of the parents with whom henceforth they will work in the interests of the children.

"Parents who, however, do not wish that their children should be examined by school doctors have a right to exempt them, as the new provisions do not refer to educational matters that are in any way compulsory. Such parents, however, must furnish the necessary information from their own doctor."

They would be strange parents who would "take offense" on receiving such a letter as this. With this letter is inclosed another, which requests, in case the examination is agreed to, the presence of the father, mother, or guardian.

The Wiesbaden school doctors make a further examination of children in the third year of their school life—yet another in the fifth year. Finally,

in the eighth and last year, just before the child leaves school, there is a final examination. The doctor has by this time the pupil's health card during school life before him. He has had opportunities of watching this pupil's progress and has the teachers' report to help him. Thus he is more or less in a position to give advice to the parents which should be of use to them in choosing the child's future trade or career in life. And to do this is his parting service to pupil and parent.

The weighing and measuring of children will be done by the class teachers. It is to be carried out half-yearly (measurement to half-centimetre and weight to one-quarter of a kilogramme). The doctor will measure regularly the chest girth of all children who are suspected of having lung disease or whose constitution and health are such that they are under medical control.

The health sheet and the weighing and measuring machines bring home to teachers the fact that the healthy children are passing rapidly through certain stages of growth, and that in the course of time, the contrast presented by them to the undernourished and undergrown gets more and more marked.³

Descriptions of certain aspects of the Wiesbaden system will illustrate important points:

Information furnished by parents whose children *are not* examined by the school doctors.

Name of child
Born	School,.....
General constitution
Mental capacity
Respiratory organs
Spinal column and extremities.....
Digestive organs
Skin (parasites)
Eyesight
Ear—hearing
Mouth, nose, and articulation
Special remarks
Medical recommendations regarding instruction
.....
Wiesbaden.....

(Signature of doctor)

NOTE.—Doctors are requested to fill up the form as accurately as possible. The first column "General constitution" should be filled up, and that accord-

³ McMillan, *op. cit.*

ing to the categories "Good," "Medium," "Bad," with "Chlorosis," "Tuberculosis," etc., in parenthesis as the case may be. The other columns only when symptoms of disease exist. Details of the latter (in the column for "Special Remarks") are particularly desired when the child has been absent from school or receives special attention in instruction and gymnastics. This form must be filled up as often as may appear necessary.⁴

Notice sent to parents as a result of examination in Wiesbaden:

The medical examination (or supervision) ordered by the Magistracy of your child born has shown that it suffers from In the interest of your child's health and of the school it is urgently necessary that..... (treatment recommended is here stated)

Weisbaden

190.....

The Magistracy

.....⁵

(Signed).....

MEDICAL REPORT ON LATE EXAMINATIONS (WIESBADEN)⁶

School Year..... . Calendar Year.....

School Doctor.....

	I	2	3	I	2	3	I	2	3	Remarks
Class number and number of students... ..										
General constitution { Good.... Medium.... Bad.....										
Anaemia.....										
Scrofula (Tuberculosis).....										
Rickets.....										
Epilepsy and mental defects....										
Chest and stomach.....										
Abdominal ruptures.										
Skin { Lice..... Itch..... Other maladies										
Spinal column and extremities .										
Eye maladies.....										
Defective sight.....										
Mouth and nose.....										
Defective articulation..										
Under supervision.....										
Free from all ailment.....										

⁴ McMillan, *op. cit.*

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ *Ibid.*

A writer on industrial conditions in Germany comments further upon the value and effect of health supervision as related particularly to the attention given to chronic defects.

It might be thought that the attentions of the school doctors, though so well meaning, are regarded as inquisitorial and intrusive. Nevertheless, thanks to the discretion with which the school authorities and the school doctors go about their work, parental opposition has seldom to be encountered, and even initial prejudice is rare. Almost universally, parents welcome the school doctor's advice and help, and not merely facilitate the periodical examinations, but carry out faithfully the directions given. This is more noteworthy since in no German state do the education authorities possess legal powers to compel examinations or to inflict penalties in the case of refusal to undergo them. The whole system rests on a voluntary basis, yet it acts with remarkable efficiency, for tact and suasion have done what coercion would probably have failed to do. Parents are encouraged to regard the school doctors as friends whose only interest is their children's welfare, and the school doctors for their part take diligent care to cultivate confidence by enlisting the co-operation and the presence of the parents at every examination and all through their work as the guardians of the children's health. On the other hand, if a parent prefers that examination shall be made by the family doctor, no objection whatever is raised; all that is asked is that the same careful and exhaustive investigation shall take place, an investigation embracing the same questions and following the same principles, so that uniformity of procedure and of results may be secured, to which end special forms have to be used.

It is, of course, impossible to set forth the success of this system of school hygiene in the form of a bald set of figures, though figures may none the less be cited, eloquent and conclusive in their testimony to invaluable results. In the first place, young children are delayed from entering school whenever their physical or mental condition is such that school life, work and discipline would be harmful to them. In the second place, every detectable weakness of every child is dragged to light and carefully placed on record. Where medical treatment can be resorted to with hope of recovery, directions to that effect are given, and the school doctor, while he does not himself give professional attention, takes care that his advice is duly followed. Where, on the other hand, a child needs exceptional treatment in school the required attention is noted on the health certificate, and it is the duty of the teacher to see that it is faithfully observed. But the most important part of a school doctor's work is the detection of maladies and weaknesses which, but for his scrutiny, would probably have continued to evade the eye both of parents and teachers,

and might have been the source of permanent injury to the children concerned. To cite the case of Berlin: There school doctors were first employed in the year 1902, and of the children notified in that year for primary admission to school 12.3 per cent. had to be put back for varying terms. In 26 per cent. of the cases the reason was general physical weakness, in 16 per cent., delicate constitution, in 10 per cent., tuberculosis of the lungs. Last year (1905) the number of newly registered children examined was 34,562, and of these 2,927, or 8.5 per cent. were put back, while 7,041, or 23.7 per cent. were placed under oversight, making the total number under oversight in that year 24,225. The reason for oversight was defective sight in 22.4 per cent. of the cases, and general weakness in 13 per cent. The doctors' joint report for the year contained the significant remark, "Most of the children in the incipient stages of tuberculosis attend school without either parent or teacher having any suspicion that anything ails them." But at medical oversight in the narrower sense the more progressive towns do not stop, for here and there specialists are employed for the treatment of eye, ear, throat maladies, and in several towns systematic attention is also given to the teeth of all children in the elementary schools.⁷

Noteworthy features in the Wiesbaden system:

1. The means for securing the co-operation and sympathy of parents and teachers.
2. The completeness of the examination.
3. The frequency and regularity of the examination, coming at vital stages of the child's school life.
4. The filing of the health report, a school record, used for reference in connection with the school work of the child.
5. The scientific and educational interest of the doctors which insures thorough examinations and wins co-operation of teacher and parent.
6. The popular nature of the movement as it has developed among the people and has not been imposed by a central government.
7. The movement is an integral part of the school system and is treated primarily as an educational problem.

Some of the practical, direct and indirect results of the Wiesbaden system may be stated thus:

1. Children of subnormal type are profitably delayed in entering school.
2. Individual children are made happier and more efficient.

⁷ Dawson, *German Workman*.

3. Teachers are relieved by special individual adjustment of the weaker children.

4. To the movement can be traced:

a) The forming of special classes for defectives requiring modified treatment.

b) Installation of school baths.

c) Providing free meals for school children.

d) Establishment of free clinics and dispensaries for treatment of child ailments.

e) Founding of outdoor schools for weaker children.

The system is defended on economic grounds as an effective means of preserving and improving social and national efficiency. The spirit in which the personal supervision of the child's health in school should be conducted is well expressed in the following:

The new education is indeed more personal but it is more reverent and gentle than the old. Rudeness will wreck all. The human body is not vile. It is the instrument of instruments. The first condition of success is not that the doctor has degrees, it is that he should not offend one of these little ones. The behavior of children—that is not a thing to judge in the first place. To judge is easy, it has been done for ages, to understand is the new task begun very late. Hasty judgment precludes the possibility of complete understanding. To classify according to health is comparatively easy, it may be done by the three card system. To classify ability and weakness is not so easy. Each child presents his own problems.⁸

The statistics of infectious and contagious disease among school children vary greatly in different places. Infectious ailments like pediculosis (lice) and trachoma (granulation of eyelids) are very common among children of the crowded districts. They are comparably rare in families where children are relatively clean and well cared for. Board of health reports show that cases of measles, diphtheria, scarlet fever, and whooping-cough increase in number from the beginning of the school year in September when the housing-up and segregating process begins, up to March or April, when the children are more of the time out of doors. During the summer vacations the curves indicating the prevalence of contagious diseases are at the lowest. We are driven by such statistics to the conclusion that the school disseminates disease, and is responsible, in part at

⁸ McMillan, *op. cit.*

least, for the greater prevalence of contagious diseases of children during the winter months. Extraordinary precautions based upon improving scientific methods will be necessary in order that the school may successfully safeguard the child from disease infection.

Regulations regarding exclusion from schools for infectious and contagious diseases and ailments are not uniform. Quotations from reports of various cities show confusing variety in procedure. The following suggestions are based upon experience in health inspection of school children and upon observation of such practices in the United States and European countries.

It is advisable to exclude from school, pupils who have the following:

- | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Small-pox | grades, as this may | 13. Coryza (running at |
| 2. Scarlet fever | be early state of | the nose) in pupils of |
| 3. Diphtheria | whooping-cough, | kindergarten or prim- |
| 4. Tonsilitis | before spasmodic | ary grades, as it is |
| 5. Measles | cough develops) | often a symptom of |
| 6. Chicken-pox | 11. Trachoma (granu- | measles |
| 7. Mumps | lation of eyelids), if | 14. Pediculosis, ring- |
| 8. Acute adenitis (sudden | there is discharge | worm, scabies (itch), |
| swelling of the glands | from eyes | other skin infections |
| of the neck, which | 12. Acute conjunctivitis | (if treatment of these |
| may be infectious) | (this is usually either | disorders is under |
| 9. Whooping-cough | ["pink eye"] in- | supervision of a school |
| 10. Persistent cough (in | fection of eye, or | nurse exclusion is not |
| pupils of kindergar- | a symptom of | necessary) |
| ten and primary | measles) | |

This aspect of the work of the school nurse is very important, as it permits children with these minor ailments to continue in school.

The following regulations have been used successfully for several years in a large city school:

Each pupil who has been absent from school for three or more consecutive days for any reason must obtain a written permit from the school physician before being readmitted to school.

EXCLUSION FROM SCHOOL

No child will be admitted until after the expiration of the period of infection, as follows:

Diphtheria and membranous croup.—From beginning of throat symptoms

until one week after laboratory culture shows the throat and nose^o free from diphtheria bacilli. Children who have been exposed to this disease may return to school ten days after date of exposure, or if the disease has broken out in the home, ten full days after change of residence.

Scarlet fever.—From earliest manifestations of illness until desquamation is completed. Not less than six weeks. The period of exclusion will be increased if catarrhal conditions persist. Children exposed to this disease may return to school two weeks from date of exposure, or if the disease has broken out in the home, fifteen days after change of residence.

Measles and German measles (Rubella).—Three weeks from onset of disease, or until catarrhal stage has passed and cough has entirely disappeared. Children exposed to this disease will not be permitted to return to school until ten full days after date of exposure, or if the disease has broken out in the home, ten days after change of residence.

Whooping-cough.—Ten weeks, or until thirty days after the last characteristic coughing spell.

Chicken-pox.—Two weeks, or until desquamation is completed. If the disease has broken out in the home the child may return to school after change of residence.

Mumps.—Exclusion from school until seven days after swelling has entirely disappeared.

Modification of these rules may be desirable for high-school and college students.

In exclusion of pupils from school for contagious disease, wisdom dictates that the child shall stay away longer than is necessary after recovery rather than to endanger his school companions by returning too soon. The benefit of the doubt should be given to the many rather than to the one.

The limitation of contagious disease among children involves many difficult problems. One of these relates to the "bacillus or germ carriers." It is now well established that a person who has had diphtheria, for example, and has made a complete recovery, may carry diphtheria germs in the throat or naso-pharynx for an indefinite period and may, while in good health after convalescence, convey the germs to other people with perhaps resulting diphtheria which may be of the most severe type. Such a person is a germ carrier, and a very dangerous individual to be at large.

It is even possible that a child who has never had diphtheria may

^o In some cases, cultures from the throat may be negative, while cultures taken from the nasal passages may show presence of diphtheria bacilli.

be a diphtheria germ carrier, and may cause diphtheria in other children. A certain very capable graduate nurse is at the present time a diphtheria carrier, and is debarred from nursing. An apparently healthy pupil or teacher may then be a germ carrier and dangerous to others for this reason. In a Minnesota town recently the new superintendent found that diphtheria had occurred annually for several years. Cultures were taken from throats of all the school children at the beginning of the school year. Eight healthy diphtheria bacillus carriers were found among the pupils. They were excluded from school, received proper attention, and diphtheria was for the time stamped out of that town. It is now known that germ carriers may convey the bacilli of typhoid, diphtheria, tuberculosis, tonsilitis, and perhaps pneumonia and other diseases. "Typhoid Mary" has never had typhoid, but as a domestic servant has conveyed typhoid to other people innocently yet most effectively. Twenty-six cases (with one death) of typhoid have been attributed to this woman. Another woman who had typhoid eighteen years ago has worked in a dairy and as an unconscious typhoid carrier has caused many cases and several epidemics of the disease. It is entirely probable that in the near future teachers and pupils will be examined to detect carriers of disease germs.

In the more efficient detection of incipient cases of contagious disease the school nurse has demonstrated the great value of this one phase of her work. It is practically impossible for the school doctor to inspect all the children each day or each week. The grade teacher is not qualified to note some of the finer indications of beginning disease. The school nurse, with her special training and by daily inspection of all pupils, bridges the gap in inspection between teacher and doctor, and may perform service of almost inestimable value. Dr. Cabot states that—

for ten years in Boston schools, the average number of cases of scarlet fever found each year under inspection of teachers and doctors was 14. In 1908 under inspection of school nurses 1,000 cases were found. That means that the nurses are nearly seventy times as good as the teachers in making the diagnosis of scarlet fever. Under so-called medical inspection (really teachers' inspection) 86 cases of measles was the average number found each year. The school nurses in 1908 found 2,285 cases, or about thirty times as many.

The more comprehensive examination of pupils for chronic weaknesses and defects in addition to detection of acute disease, is coming into vogue slowly. The most significant pronouncement concerning this wider scope of health investigations is contained in the *Memorandum on Medical Inspection of Children in Public Elementary Schools under the English Education Act of 1907*.

This new legislation aims . . . at the physical improvement and, as a natural corollary, the mental and moral improvement of coming generations. It is founded on a recognition of the close connection which exists between the physical and mental condition of the children and the whole process of education. It recognizes the importance of a satisfactory environment, physical and educational, and, by bringing into greater prominence the effect of environment upon the personality of the individual child, seeks to secure ultimately for every child, normal or defective, conditions of life compatible with that full and effective development of its organic functions, its special senses, and its mental powers which constitute a true education.

This memorandum also states that the work of medical inspection cannot be properly accomplished unless

the teacher, the school nurse (where such exists) and the parents or guardians of the child co-operate heartily with the school medical officer.

A recent report from Tasmania shows a sudden development of thorough health examinations resulting from no traditional medical inspection. The work is under the Medical Branch of the Education Department in close co-operation with educational administration. Its object is stated—

To put children in the most suitable condition for receiving instruction.

Observation and special research show that a considerable percentage of the children in the schools are in such a condition of ill-health that their physical development is vastly more in need of special attention than their intellectual development.¹⁰

An inquiry concerning health examinations in schools was sent out within a year to all cities (136) in the United States having a population of 30,000 or more. Answers were received from 112 of these: 35 had no regular inspection; 10 had simply medical inspection for contagious diseases; 8 reported experimental and irregular inspections; 17 had periodic examinations for sight and

¹⁰ Burnham, *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1900, p. 92.

hearing only; 42 show evidence of systems of health examinations in varying degrees of development and completeness.

The cities having the best organized systems are: Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Los Angeles, Milwaukee, New York, and Philadelphia.

Examinations in the following thirty-five cities include beyond inspection for contagious disease other items than sight and hearing:

Akron,	Fall River	Memphis	San Antonio
Baltimore	Fitchburg	Newark	Schenectady
Birmingham	Harrisburg	New Orleans	Springfield (Ohio)
Brockton	Hartford	Newton	Superior
Buffalo	Haverhill	Norfolk	Syracuse
Camden	Houston	Paterson	Trenton
Cincinnati	Indianapolis	Portland (Ore.)	Utica
Detroit	Lancaster	Reading	Waterbury. ¹¹
Elizabeth	Little Rock	Rochester	

Physical defects among school children have been found in varying proportions.

Dr. Hertel, in his well-known investigation of the health of pupils in the better-class schools of Copenhagen before 1885, found that of the boys 31.1 per cent. and of the girls 39.4 per cent. were sickly.

Dr. Francis Warner in the examination of 50,000 school children in London found that 10.8 per cent. of the boys and 8.5 per cent. of girls had abnormal nerve signs; 7.9 per cent. of boys and 6.9 per cent. of girls were mentally dull; 8.8 per cent. of boys and 6.8 per cent. of girls had had some developmental defects. Of the cases with developmental defects, 38.4 per cent. of the boys and 49.9 per cent. of the girls were mentally dull. Of those who were mentally dull, 57.6 per cent. of the boys and 52.6 per cent. of the girls showed abnormal nerve signs.

Dr. Risely examined the eyes of 2,422 school children in Philadelphia and found that 44.7 per cent. had some deficiency of vision.

Dr. Sexton examined 570 school children in New York City and found that 13.3 per cent. had deficient hearing in one or both ears. "Of these only one was known by the teacher to be defective, and only ten knew themselves to be deficient in this sense."

Examinations of 40,000 school children by school physicians in the Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, Germany, in 1900, showed that 23 per cent.

¹¹ Some other cities from which reports were not received should, perhaps, be added to this list.

were myopic, 10 per cent. or more had spinal curvature, and 60 per cent. had teeth which needed attention.

Examinations of 900 pupils in the Horace Mann Schools of Teachers College, New York City, during 1902-03 showed that 34 per cent. had myopia, 12.9 per cent. had functional heart disorders, 5.6 per cent. had spinal curvature with some vertebral rotation, 31.2 per cent. more had asymmetry of spine, hips, or shoulders, 14.6 per cent. had adenoids or chronically enlarged tonsils.¹²

STATISTICS OF DEFECTIVE HEARING AMONG SCHOOL CHILDREN

	No. Examined	No. Defective	Percentage
United States.	57,072	2,067	3.6
Russia (Zhermunski's report).....	2,221	388	17.42
Stuttgart (Weil's report).....	5,095	1,528	30.00
Bordeaux (Moure's report)	3,588	616	17.00
Copenhagen (Schienieglov's report).....	581	290	50.00
London (Dr. Cheate's report).....	1,000	568	56.8
Edinburgh.....	567	211	35.24
Aberdeen	600	87	13.00

Moure claims that 500 out of 616 could have been cured of their deafness if properly treated.

The teachers after the tests selected 79 children whom they considered backward, 51 of these children were dull of hearing.

The following table shows the number of defects found in boys of Truant School No. 120, Brooklyn, N. Y.:

No. examined.....88	No. cases deformity of extremities 2
No. found defective.....77	No. cases defective nasal breathing 17
No. cases anterior glands.....62	No. cases bad mentality..... 9
No. cases bad teeth.....34	No. cases skin disease.....13
No. cases defective vision.....48	No. cases cardiac disease..... 3
No. cases hypertrophied tonsils...19	No. cases defective hearing..... 1
No. cases post nasal growth..... 8	No. cases defective palate..... 1

Examinations of school children in Minneapolis in 1908 showed:

Percentage	Percentage
Malnutrition23.3	Defective hearing 7.7
Enlarged cervical glands.....53	Defective teeth43.5
Heart disease 2.1	Enlarged tonsils31.1
Lung disease 4.2	Adenoids12.6
Defective vision23.9	Treatment necessary65.1

One writer states that in Germany 90 per cent. of all elementary-school children suffer from decayed teeth. Condition of children's

¹² "School Hygiene," *Teachers College Record*, March, 1905.

teeth is not much better, if at all, in this country, and statistics show further that the teeth of country children are as bad as those of city children, while native-born American children show about the same percentage of decayed and neglected teeth as those of foreign birth. A school physician of Ashley, Mass., reports that 95 per cent. of the school pupils have decayed teeth. A school physician at Northampton, Mass., states: "The most deplorable fact from the examination, was the almost total lack of care given children's teeth. Out of 600 children only 74 had received any attention and the larger number of the remaining 526 exhibited most uncleanly and unhealthy mouths." Examination of 572 children of Foxboro, Mass., showed 1,303 teeth which needed to be filled and 334 which required extraction.

SHARE OF THE TEACHER IN HEALTH INSPECTION

In district schools and in schools of small communities which are not visited daily by a doctor, and in large schools where a nurse is not employed, the teacher has the responsibility for detecting at least the signs of acute disease. She should be able to test eyesight and hearing, and it is desirable further that she should note as far as may be possible the indications of important chronic defects.

The following directions are taken from the admirable handbook on *Medical Inspection* issued by the Massachusetts Board of Education.

SOME GENERAL SYMPTOMS OF DISEASE IN CHILDREN WHICH TEACHERS SHOULD NOTICE; AND ON ACCOUNT OF WHICH THE CHILDREN SHOULD BE REFERRED TO THE SCHOOL PHYSICIAN

Emaciation.—This is a manifestation of many chronic diseases, and may point especially to tuberculosis.

Pallor.—Pallor usually indicates anaemia. Pallor in young girls usually means chlorosis—a form of anaemia peculiar to girls at about the age of puberty. It is usually associated with shortness of breath; the general condition otherwise appears good. Pallor may also be a manifestation of disease of the kidneys; this is almost invariably the case if it is associated with puffiness of the face.

Puffiness of the face.—This, especially if it is about the eyes, points to disease of the kidneys; it may, however, merely indicate nasal obstruction.

Shortness of breath.—Shortness of breath usually indicates disease of the heart or lungs. If it is associated with blueness, the trouble is usually

in the heart. If it is associated with cough, the trouble is more likely to be in the lungs.

Swellings in the neck.—These may be due to mumps or enlargement of the glands. The swelling of mumps comes on acutely, and is located just in front of and below the ear. Swollen glands are situated lower in the neck, or about the angle of the jaw. They may come on either acutely or slowly. If acutely, they mean some acute condition in the throat. If slowly, they are most often tubercular. They may also be the result of irritation of the scalp, or of lice in the hair.

General lassitude and other evidences of sickness.—This hardly needs description, but may, of course, mean the presence or onset of any of the acute diseases.

Flushing of the face.—This very often means fever, and on this account should be reported.

Eruptions of any sort.—All eruptions should be called to the attention of the physician. It is especially important to notice eruptions, because they may be the manifestations of some of the contagious diseases. The eruption of scarlet fever is of a bright scarlet color and usually appears first on the neck and chest, spreading thence to the face. There is often a pale ring about the mouth in scarlet fever, which is very characteristic. There is usually a sore throat in connection with the eruption. The eruption of measles is a rose or purplish red, and is in blotches about the size of a pea. It appears first on the face, and is usually associated with running of the nose and eyes. The eruption of chicken-pox appears first as small red pimples, which quickly become small blisters.

A cold in the head, with running eyes.—This should be noticed, because it may indicate the onset of measles.

Irritating discharge from the nose.—A thin, watery nasal discharge, which irritates the nostrils and the upper lip, should always be regarded with suspicion. It may mean nothing more than a cold in the head, but not infrequently indicates diphtheria.

Evidences of sore throat.—Evidences of sore throat, such as swelling of the neck and difficulty in swallowing are of importance. They may mean nothing but tonsilitis, but not infrequently are manifestations of diphtheria or scarlet fever.

Coughs.—It is very important to notice whether children are coughing or not, and what is the character of the cough. In most cases, of course, the cough merely means a simple cold or slight bronchitis. A spasmodic cough, that is, a cough which occurs in paroxysms and is uncontrollable very frequently indicates whooping-cough. A croupy cough, that is, a cough which is harsh and ringing, may indicate the disease, diphtheria. A painful

cough may indicate disease of the lungs, especially pleurisy or pneumonia. A long-continued cough may mean tuberculosis of the lungs.

Vomiting.—Vomiting usually, of course, merely means some digestive upset. It may, however, be the initial symptom of many of the acute diseases, and is therefore of considerable importance.

Frequent requests to go out.—Teachers are too much inclined to think that frequent requests to go out merely indicate restlessness or perversity. They often, however, indicate trouble of some sort, which may be in the bowels, kidneys or bladder; therefore, they should always be reported to the physician.

Eye signs which should be noted by the teacher have been tabulated conveniently thus:

a) All those with "sore eyes"—the name commonly given to chronically or acutely inflamed eyelids.

b) All those with styes.

c) All those whose eyes are congested and "red" where they should be blue-milk-white.

d) All those that squint, either constantly or occasionally.

e) All those that hold their reading-books nearer to the face than one foot.

f) All those that hold their books at arm's length in order to read.

g) All those that cannot read blackboard writing freely from their seats.

h) All those that "peer" like a cat in the sun, or shut their eyelids to a chink.

i) All those that have a drawn, anxious look when reading from map, or blackboard, or wall card.

j) All those that slope the head to read.

k) All those that complain of headaches or show very small pupils at the end of the day.

l) All backward children showing one or more of these symptoms.

m) All that fear the light.

DIRECTIONS FOR TESTING EYESIGHT

CONDITIONS FOR TEST

I. Make the test for each pupil singly and in a room apart from the schoolroom if possible.

II. For children too young to read, use the chart with pictures of familiar objects.

ARRANGEMENT OF CHART

III. Hang the Snellen test chart away from windows, in a good light, on a level with the head.

TEST

IV. Place the pupil 20 feet from the chart. Hold a card over one eye firmly against the nose without pressing on the covered eye. Have pupil name letters from the top (larger letters) downward, reading from left to right with one eye and from right to left with the other to avoid reading from memory.

RECORDING

V. The lines on the chart are numbered. At a distance of 20 feet the normal eye should read the letters on the 20-foot line.

Record would be $\frac{20}{20}$ { distance in feet of chart from the eye
number over the line of smallest letters read.

If the smallest letters which can be read are on the 30-foot line, vision will be recorded as $\frac{20}{30}$. If smallest letters which can be read are on the 40-foot line, the record would be $\frac{20}{40}$. If pupils cannot see the largest letters numbered, for instance 100, have him approach slowly until he can read them. If 10 feet is the greatest distance at which largest letters can be read, record would be $\frac{10}{100}$. A mistake of two letters on the 20-foot line and of one on the 30- or 40-foot line may be allowed.

REFERRING PUPILS

VI. If the child has less than normal vision; if the eyes are persistently red and inflamed; if there is pain in eyes or head after reading, notice should be sent to the home that medical attention is needed.

DIRECTIONS FOR TESTING HEARING

THE EXAMINER

I. To insure more uniformity in tests, one person, if possible, should make all the tests in a school. This person should have normal hearing and conduct the tests in such a way that the children have no fear.

PLACE FOR TEST

II. The tests should be made in a quiet room not less than 25 to 30 feet long. The floor should be marked with parallel lines one foot apart.

TEST

III. The test should be made with the whispered voice, which should be heard by the normal ear at 25 feet. The child should repeat what he hears, and the distance at which words can be heard distinctly should be recorded. Each ear should be tested separately with the eyes closed, and the other ear should be tightly closed with the finger during the test.

RECORDING

Hearing may be recorded by a fraction:

$\frac{\text{Numerator}}{\text{Denominator}}$ e.g., $\frac{20}{25}$ { distance in feet at which whisper is distinctly heard
distance at which whisper should be heard by normal ear.

WATCH-TICK TEST

If hearing is defective, it may be tested by a watch-tick and the distance recorded in inches—in same manner—at which watch is heard. The tick in different watches varies, but it should be heard at a distance of 3 to 5 feet.

GROUP TEST

A rough, but sometimes useful whisper test of hearing may be given to a number of children sitting approximately in a row with eyes closed at a distance of 25 feet from the teacher, but the group test will never be so accurate as the individual test.

The teacher with little practice may examine children's teeth.

The teacher also should observe signs indicative of nervous and mental conditions of children:

NERVE SIGNS

a) Restlessness, inability to stand or sit quietly in a child formerly self-controlled; rapid twitching movements of head, face, body, arms, hands, or legs—these are frequently early and slight symptoms of chorea (St. Vitus' Dance).

b) Slower movements and twitchings, sometimes habit spasms which may be due to eye strain, adenoids, or other abnormal conditions.

c) Faintings, or moments when lips turn blue and child seems unconscious of what is going on about him. These may be the lesser seizures of true epilepsy.

d) Irritability, excessive fears, morbidness, crying fits, undue sensitiveness may indicate neurasthenic condition (chronic fatigue).

WORK OF THE SCHOOL NURSE

The well-trained nurse is becoming a most important factor in the care and supervision of health of school children. Her service to child-life and to education has passed beyond the experimental stage.

About one hundred and fifty school nurses are employed in New York City at a salary for each of \$75 a month. School nurses are also employed in Boston, Philadelphia, and several other large cities. The functions of the school nurse may briefly be summarized as follows:

1. Daily inspection of pupils in school. With training they may become more expert than the school doctors, even, in the detection of early symptoms of scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, chicken-pox, and mumps.

2. Treatment of minor injuries and direction of treatment of such conditions as pediculosis, ringworm, scabies, and conjunctivitis (not trachoma).

3. Visitation of homes (outside of school hours) to instruct parents about treatment ordered by the doctor and to give suggestions about matters relating to the home care of child, and home sanitation in general. The nurse may give practical demonstrations of brushing the teeth, treatment of pediculosis, the giving of a bath. The services which the qualified nurse may perform are too extensive and varied to enumerate and impossible to estimate in value.

PHYSICAL DEFECTS IN SCHOOL CHILDREN

The examination of pupils for chronic defects when the child enters school, and annually or biennially afterward, may profitably involve the following items:

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| 1. Age | charge | tions, curvature) |
| 2. Height | 9. Throat (tonsils, adenoids) | 17. Abdominal walls (for hernia) |
| 3. Weight | 10. Teeth | 18. Feet (condition of arches) |
| 4. Chest measurements (in special cases) | 11. Cervical glands | 19. Nervous and mental development (precocious, retarded) |
| 5. Eyes (condition of conjunctiva) | 12. Skin | 20. Stage of development in adolescence |
| 6. Vision | 13. Bones (with reference to rickets) | |
| 7. Hearing | 14. Heart | |
| 8. Nose (concerning mouth breathing) and catarrhal nasal dis- | 15. Lungs | |
| | 16. Spine (posture, deviations, shoulder posi- | |

As part of the investigation of the general health condition of the pupil, information about family, personal health history, and about home habits may be of great value.

Such requests for information will in many cases call attention to factors in the home life of the child which may have an important bearing upon the health of the pupil and upon his school life.

A blank to be filled out by the parents may serve thus as a valuable link between home and school and contribute to more effective co-operation between parents and teachers in the interests of the child, not only in relation to physical but mental and moral welfare. Such a home blank has been used for several years in the Horace Mann School in New York City with excellent results. The blank given below for illustration is similar to the one referred to above, and suggests the details of information which may be found.

HEALTH BLANK TO BE FILLED BY PARENTS

Date
 Name in full
 Name and address of parent or guardian.....

 Date of birth.....Place of birth.....
 How many older brothers?.....Older sisters.....
 How many younger brothers?.....Younger sisters.....
 Health of child since birth.....
 Health of child now: Excellent, good, fair, poor.....
 Name diseases or injuries that child has had, and note permanent effects
 of such upon health.....

 What weaknesses or tendencies to ill-health exist?.....

 Which of these tendencies are hereditary?.....

 Average number of hours in bed.....
 Is sleep sound or restless?.....
 Is child refreshed and cheerfully ready for the day's tasks?.....
 Is appetite good, medium, or poor?.....
 What does the child eat for breakfast?.....
 Number of hours out of doors daily.....
 Favorite out-of-door exercises or games.....
 Does child prefer outdoor play, or reading for recreation?.....
 Average time for home study, if any.....
 Conditions for home study: Artificial light and arrangement, number of
 people in room, noise and confusion.....
 Studies or lessons taken out of school and number of hours a week given
 to each
 Habit of bowels.....
 Dates of successful vaccinations.....
 Date of last attempt at vaccination.....
 General remarks

Weight is an important indication of the health condition of the child. The pupil should be weighed every year, and in case of acute illness or other health disturbances, at more frequent intervals. If the child is materially below the standard weight for age and height, medical care should be given. If the weight is greatly above the standard, medical care may also be needed.

RELATIVE WEIGHT AND HEIGHT TABLE—GIRLS

The figures represent weight in pounds

Height in inches	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.	19 Yrs.	20 Yrs.
39	34															
40	37	35														
41	38	37														
42	41	39	39													
43	41	41	42													
44	45	43	44	42												
45		45	45	45												
46		48	47	47												
47			50	49												
48				51	49											
49				53	51											
50				56	53	54										
51					59	57	60									
52					63	62	62	63								
53						64	63	66	65							
54						69	68	69	68							
55							70	71	73							
56							75	75	76							
57								78	80	78						
58								83	86	88	89					
59								88	89	93	97	100				
60								94	96	100	104	109	109	103	99	99
61									99	100	102	109	109	106	105	111
62								104		104	106	111	110	107	111	114
63										107	109	116	110	112	113	114
64										112	118	116	117	114	119	115
65										114	118	121	125	120	123	125

pounds in older pupils, and is slightly greater for boys' than for girls' clothing.

The foregoing tables give in whole number of pounds the weights of boys and girls of different ages and different heights. The method of using the table will be readily apparent, e. g., the mean (corresponding closely to the average) weight of a boy twelve years old and 58 inches tall is 84 pounds.

Possible injurious effects of the more important physical defects of children may be classified as follows:

I. Defective eyes with imperfect vision

- Headache commonly through forehead or back of head, or both.
- Blurring of sight, but, in hypermetropia with eye strain, vision may be exceptionally good, especially for distant objects.
- Nausea and dizziness, sometimes disturbances of digestion with resulting malnutrition.

- d) Nervous exhaustion with neurasthenia.
- e) Nervous irritability and lack of nervous control shown in muscular twitching of face, arms, and legs.
- f) Mental inability to grasp an idea presented through the eyes.
- g) Retardation in school.
- h) In rare cases convulsions.

Some medical authorities have attributed epileptic and epileptiform seizures to abnormal eyes.

II. *Defective ears*

- a) With catarrh of middle ear—danger of mastoid disease.
- b) With deficient hearing, pupil is often dull, careless, listless, inattentive, and mentally backward.
- c) Retardation in school.
- d) Pupils are often considered mentally defective when the only primary defect is imperfect hearing.

III. *Adenoids*

These are growths of lymphoid tissue (somewhat similar to enlarged tonsils) in the naso-pharynx, up behind the soft palate, and not usually visible on inspection of throat without a laryngoscopic mirror. The causes of adenoid enlargement are not clearly understood. They seem to belong to civilization. Some primitive races are free from them and possibly all.

- a) Structural effects.
 - 1. High-arched palate.
 - 2. Narrowing of upper jaw.
 - 3. Deformity of chest, resulting from obstructed and imperfect breathing, shown by lateral depression of front of chest and prominent sternum (breast bone).
 - 4. Disturbed development of teeth and vocal organs.
 - 5. Accompanied by large tonsils in one-third of cases.
- b) Functional disturbances.
 - 1. Mental.
 - (a) Disturbances in function of brain resulting in aprosechia nasalis—i. e., difficult for patient to form an idea of anything new; is stupid, has difficulty in retaining ideas, weakness of memory, inability to turn his thought upon a definite subject, lack of power of attention. Guys found among 152 patients with adenoids 62 with decided aprosechia, 32 with slight degree, and 58 with none.
 - (b) Irritability, depression, and often disorderly conduct.

2. Deafness. This is present in a large percentage of all well-marked cases and is due to blocking of Eustachian tubes. Freudenthal found 467 cases of deafness in his 1,000 cases.
3. Defects in sense of smell and taste.
4. Defects in voice (nasal voice).
5. Chronic rhino-pharyngeal catarrh shown by a persistent nasal discharge. This is often one of the first symptoms. In very young it is manifested by snuffles.
6. Obstruction of air passage resulting in breathing disturbances, manifested by open mouth, great restlessness at night, the child being forced to assume various attitudes, i. e., sleeping on face, etc., in order to breathe better.
7. Reflex.
 - a) Catarrhal spasm of larynx, or croup.
 - b) Headache.
 - c) Intractable cough and hoarseness.
 - d) Bronchial asthma.
 - e) Enuresis (incontinence of urine).
- c) General effects.
 1. Malnutrition and anaemia.
 2. Underdevelopment, physical and mental.
 3. Predisposition to otitis media (middle ear disease) laryngitis, colds of a remittent nature; increased susceptibility to disease infections, such as tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, etc.

Description of appearance of a child with marked enlargement: mouth open, dull, sleepy, with inquiring look; upper lip short and thick; upper jaw narrowed; nasal orifices small and pinched; the face full under the eyes; listless and indisposed to physical or mental exertion; stupid and backward; in school from one to two years behind the normal pupil of same age; undersized.

IV. *Enlarged tonsils*

The tonsils are believed to have useful function in infancy and early childhood, but normally they decrease in size and almost disappear when the child is from five to seven years of age.

Enlarged tonsils produce many of the unfavorable results attributed to adenoids. The two conditions are often associated and it is difficult to distinguish between their effects. Enlarged tonsils produce susceptibility to

- a) Tonsillitis.
- b) Quinsy.

- c) Diphtheria.
- d) Rheumatism.
- e) Tuberculosis.
- f) Pneumonia, and perhaps other forms of infection.

The presence of enlarged tonsils and adenoids in school children should be known and when any disturbances of health can be attributed to them, these structures should be removed. Their absence is an unqualified advantage.

V. Defective teeth

"If I were asked to say whether more physical deterioration was produced by alcohol or by defective teeth, I should unhesitatingly say—defective teeth. In some schools as many as 98 per cent. of pupils show defective teeth. From 50 to 75 per cent. of all school children in this country need at this moment dental care."¹⁸

¹⁸ Osler, *London Lancet*, October 21, 1902.

a) Direct effects:

1. Pain of excruciating type resulting in great loss of time and rest.
2. Foul breath with unsightly and inflamed mouth.
3. Improper mastication of food.
4. Extension of decay in sound teeth.
5. Decay of temporary teeth resulting in unsound and carious permanent teeth.
6. Infection of glands.
7. Infection of maxillary (jaw) bone.
8. Earache with otitis-media (middle ear disease) and deafness.
9. Headache.
10. Disturbance in function of eye.
11. Frequent digestive disturbance.

b) Indirect effects.

1. Condition of poor nutrition and less resistance to disease.
2. Carious teeth form an almost perfect culture bed for growth of pathogenic bacteria. This fact with lowered resistance leads to increased frequency of infection with pneumonia, diphtheria, etc.
3. Results which accompany defective hearing.
4. Lowering of vitality and temporary or permanent ill health.

There are twenty dental clinics in New York City where teeth are extracted or filled either free or at a very moderate charge, but this number is entirely inadequate to the needs of the population.

- VI. *The condition of the skin* is an important indication of the general tone and health condition of the body.
- VII. *Rickets* produces softening of the bones with different degrees of deformity, and indicates malnutrition which may injure other tissues of the body including the brain.
- VIII. *Abnormal conditions of the heart*, even if temporary, may disturb health and if neglected may result in permanent weakness of the heart itself or of the body in general. The condition of the heart is always an important index of the health condition and is often a valuable guide in adjusting amount of sleep, arrangement of school programme, and selection of muscular exercise which is most suitable for the pupil.
- IX. *The lungs* are important as a favorable location of tuberculous disease. Lung tuberculosis is more common among school children than has commonly been supposed. In pupils who are under weight, anaemic, lacking in vitality, even if not coughing, the lungs should be carefully watched.
- X. *Deviations of spine*, roundness of shoulders and stooping postures are common among boys and girls especially between ages of eleven and sixteen. Many children outgrow these conditions without special attention, but these asymmetries should be inspected from time to time to prevent as far as possible the more chronic defects in posture, and the occasional cases of genuine scoliosis (curvature of the spine) which begin so insidiously.
- XI. *Abdominal hernia* (rupture) involves serious and often dangerous weakness of the abdominal walls. It is important for the welfare of children, in the occasional cases which exist, that the condition should be detected and given appropriate treatment.
- XII. *Weak foot arches* may produce:
- a) Pain in the instep or sole of the foot, sometimes in the ankles, knee, or hip (discomfort in feet or legs, which may be called growing pains or rheumatic pains, is often due to flat foot). A child in good health does not have growing pains. Persistent "growing pains" should always be investigated and given intelligent care.
 - b) Disability, of some degree, in walking and standing, with stiff awkward gait as a result of the loss of springiness in the foot, even if discomfort does not diminish inclination to walk. Unhygienic shoes; walking and standing with toes turned out; improper methods in the gymnasium in standing, marching, and

various forms of exercise—all these conditions help to weaken arches and flatten feet. It is important for many reasons that children should be able to stand, walk, and run easily and comfortably. There is a surprising proportion of school children today who have some degree of weakness of the feet, and whose general efficiency is thereby to some extent weakened. Pupils and parents should be instructed regarding hygienic shoes; and the material and methods of gymnastic instruction need some reconstruction for the prevention of flat and weak feet.

XIII. *Phimosis in boys* (curable by circumcision) may cause:

- a) Condition which makes cleanliness difficult or impossible, with danger of infection and inflammation, and other disturbances.
- b) Hernia and other injuries from straining in voiding urine.
- c) Local sensitiveness and irritation, which is one of the most frequent causes of masturbation (self-abuse).
- d) Reflex nervous irritation which may result in insomnia, night terrors, nocturnal incontinence of urine, constipation, indigestion, malnutrition, irritability of temper, wandering attention and nervous instability.
- e) In rare cases, even chorea (St. Vitus Dance) and hysterical manifestations.

XIV. *Nervous and mental states* in relation to healthful development need constant supervision. Precocity is often more serious from the health standpoint than the same degree of mental slowness. The precocious child should not be pushed in school, but rather held back. On the other hand, really backward children should be carefully studied and curable defects should be promptly corrected.

Recent studies by Ayres¹⁴ indicate that children tend to outgrow certain defects with advancing age (though not so uniformly as to justify neglect of these) and that physical defects are only in moderate proportion of cases the prime cause of retardation in school. It is always important, however, to examine the backward child with scrutinizing care for physical defects which may, to some extent at least, cause retardation.

XV. *The progress of organic as well as mental and moral development* should ever be considered in relation to age; but the pupil should be judged and adjusted on an individual basis, with reference to his present and future welfare so far as may be advisable, independently of age or type.

¹⁴ L. P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools*.

COST OF HEALTH SUPERVISION IN SCHOOLS

The expense of health supervision in the schools varies according to the extent of work done and the compensation given. The annual cost ranges per capita up to \$1.50.

The general and thorough health supervision costs much more than the limited medical inspection for contagious disease. There is no recognized standard for payment of medical inspectors. Dr. Osler has said in relation to the work of medical inspection in England: "If we are to have school inspection, let us have good men to do the work and let us pay them well. It will demand a special training and a careful technique." The medical inspectors in England are on the average much better paid than in this country.

No expense of education is more thoroughly justified than the money paid for honest and effective health supervision.

ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH SUPERVISION

Health inspection has had its beginning, with few exceptions, in the medical inspection for contagious disease, administered by the Board of Health. When the broader work of health examination and care has grown out of this, or up about it, the Board of Health usually has had the doctor and the organization to carry on the work more conveniently and economically than the educational authorities. While the inspection for contagious disease will always remain a vital factor in health inspection in schools and must be controlled or sanctioned by the Board of Health, the large work of health examination and care in schools is primarily and essentially an educational interest and task. It must finally, logically, and inevitably be controlled and directed by the educational authorities, but in co-operation with the local health authorities (so far as control of contagious disease is concerned). The exercise of authority in the schools, in relation to all aspects of health inspection, by the Board of Health is not, and cannot be, satisfactory to the community. Dual control by the Board of Health and Board of Education has proved confusing and ineffective.

The tendency in the future will undoubtedly be to unify in the schools the various health interests under the direction of a supervisor of health, or a director of hygiene and physical education.

LEGAL CONTROL

It is probable that in the near future there will be recognition by the law of the right of the state, in the schools, to re-

quire an accurate knowledge of the health condition of school children.

The right of education further to compel by law, if need be, the correction of important defects, will probably be supported by suitable statute. It is vitally important, however, that every other resource for guarding the physical welfare of children should be utilized before the law is invoked, even if the required treatment for the child suffers at times much delay.

There are many reasons why the control of the home over these basic physical conditions of the child should suffer no more interference than seems absolutely necessary. The sympathetic mutual interest in child health, of home and school, offers the most natural introduction to a closer co-operation between teacher and parent which is greatly to be desired and which may affect favorably not only the physical, but the mental and moral life of the pupil and the home.

It is significant that the Wiesbaden system, even under the paternal and autocratic government of Germany, should have achieved its signal success on the principle of educational suasion and without the assistance of coercive measures.

In the physical care of the child by the state through the providing of free lunches, free spectacles, etc., there is greater danger of pauperizing the home than by provisions made for the intellectual or moral needs. If, however, the home cannot, or will not, provide for the serious physical or health needs of the child, there is convincing support for the argument that society should supply such needs, or compel the home by law to give requisite care, rather than allow the child to suffer damaging neglect, "for a weak or a sickly body is a grievous moral disability in so far as by narrowing the range of contact with life it stunts the character."¹⁵

The state cannot afford on economic grounds even, to educate a child who is handicapped by removable obstacles or whose personality or character is being distorted in any preventable manner.

Finally, for the efficient care of the health of school children, it seems necessary that superintendents, teachers, and parents, as well as the school doctors and special teachers in this field, should be educated in the essentials of child hygiene.

¹⁵ MacCunn, *The Making of Character*, p. 55.

SCHOOL SANITATION

School sanitation has to do with making the material environment of the school favorable to the pupils' health. The school building should be the most sanitary structure in the community.

In the past, cathedral, town hall, government buildings, public library, building of college or university, have represented in public buildings the civic pride of the community. To as great a degree, if not a greater, the schoolhouse in country or city should be a model of architectural adaptation to use, and of sanitary excellence. This building for the training of the young may be made in any community, by intelligent planning and without unreasonable expense, a structure of genuine beauty and a source of continual safety, comfort, and pleasure.

The studies of the sanitary condition of schoolhouses made in many cities in Europe, and in this country in Boston, Philadelphia, Buffalo, and several other cities, show the existence of some schoolhouses that defy almost all the well-accepted principles of hygiene, and whose use for the purposes of instruction is a disgrace to civilized communities; and they indicate that however good the best schoolhouses in this country may be, a large part of them are unfit for use because of their unsanitary condition. These investigations have been made usually under the direction of competent experts. Among the evils found are insufficient light, lack of ventilation, air vitiated by odors from outhouses, old-style vaults, gases from the heating apparatus, etc., wraps and umbrellas kept in the schoolrooms, old-style furniture too large or too small for the children, seats placed at a plus distance, the arrangement such that the light comes from the right, practically no attempt at cleaning the rooms, dry sweeping, the use of a feather duster to stir up the dust, dirty textbooks, etc.

Intelligent citizens object to a law that requires children to attend school when so often the conditions are such that a child cannot stay in the schoolhouse without danger to health.¹

The chief considerations in school sanitation relate themselves to a few main essentials: (1) fresh, clean air; (2) sufficient light properly controlled; (3) cleanness; (4) hygienic furniture;

¹W. H. Burnham, "Health Inspection in the Schools," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. VII.

(5) sanitary condition of materials used by the pupils (to prevent infection); (6) pure water supply; (7) disposal of sewage.

A schoolhouse without an adequate playground is an educational deformity and presents a gross injustice to childhood.

The location of the schoolhouse (with reasonable deference to the geographical center of the community) in anything but the most sanitary and desirable position available is altogether indefensible.

Neglect of anything essential for health in construction, materials, arrangement, and equipment of school building, in relation to the ordinary work of education, and in provision against accidental injuries to life (in fire protection) is a social and civic crime.

GOOD AIR

The importance of fresh, clean air can hardly be over-estimated. Outdoor air is the most valuable tonic known. Of the three life essentials—air, water, food—air is the cheapest and the most neglectfully used. Its very character, its universal diffusion, render it liable to a great range of contaminations. In fact, the different forms and varieties of contamination and vitiation to which air is liable are so subtle and complex that the scientists have not fathomed them all, nor devised forms of apparatus which are capable of measuring some of the important changes which occur. Ventilation is the most important feature in the sanitation of the school.

The evil effects of lack of ventilation are made only too evident by such facts as that the death-rates have been reduced by the introduction of efficient ventilating systems in children's hospitals from 50 to 5 per cent.; in surgical wards of general hospitals from 44 to 13 per cent.; in army hospitals from 23 to 6 per cent.; prison records show reduced death-rates chiefly as a result of effective ventilation, in one case from a yearly average of eighty deaths to one of eight, each period covering the same and a considerable number of years. The annual death-rate among horses in army stables in the German service has been reduced by more roomy quarters and free ventilation from 19 to 1.5 per cent.; and in Boston in time of epidemic the number of horses lost in badly ventilated stables was 5, to 1 in those well ventilated.

A vitiated atmosphere lowers the vitality, increases the susceptibility to, and severity of disease, and decreases the physical working power of the individual; while not producing sudden death, nevertheless, it inevitably shortens life.

One report of the New York Board of Health treating of the primary cause of disease, says "Forty per cent. of all deaths are caused by breathing impure air." Along this same line the Peck Williamson Company's treatise on ventilation quotes Dr. A. N. Bell as follows:

"The depressed state of the organism under the prevailing conditions of badly ventilated schoolrooms not only predisposes to epidemic diseases, but the liability to and the danger of all diseases are intensified, and the vicissitudes of weather, which under favorable circumstances may be encountered with impunity, under these depressing circumstances become dangerous perils; and doubtless much that is attributed to the season of the year supposed to be predisposing to scarlet fever, whooping-cough, diphtheria, and some other common affections of children, is due to the same cause."²

A chief educational reform of the future will be the ventilation of schoolrooms, with direct effect upon the intelligence, attention, and learning capacity of the scholars, quite apart from any question of physical health.³

Bad air is one predisposing cause of tuberculosis. Some of the census reports show that mortality from tuberculosis among teachers is 20 per cent. greater than the average among those in other occupations. Children are more sensitive than adults to the injurious effects of vitiated air as well as other unhealthful influences.

When air is bad, this is not under any ordinary circumstances due to increase of CO_2 (carbonic acid gas), nor to diminution of oxygen; nor (according to the latest and best authorities) is the injurious quality due to any intrinsic organic poison, exhaled from the lungs of a healthy person. In an occupied room the oxygen is diminished in the air and the carbon dioxide is increased, but before the oxygen decrease is serious, or the carbon dioxide is increased to an injurious degree, other changes make the air unfit for breathing.

Since the carbon dioxide in the air may rise to 4 or 5 per cent. and higher without exercising any harmful effects, we may conclude that the indisposition which results from long confinement in badly ventilated or overcrowded rooms is due, not to the influence of any poisonous constituents of the expired air, but to other circumstances—e. g. higher temperature, higher humidity, gaseous substances coming from the intestine

² S. H. Woodbridge.

³ Saleeby, *Health, Strength and Happiness*, p. 29.

or from an unclean skin, etc. It is assumed of course, that the ventilation is not so bad that carbon dioxide accumulates in too large quantities.⁴

The injurious conditions in "bad air" are:

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| a) Excessive temperature | d) Overheating of air (injured by being cooked) | f) Products of combustion from artificial light and from imperfect heating appliances |
| b) Unusual humidity (air too moist or too dry) | e) Dust from floor, blackboards, corners, crevices, moldings, etc. | g) Gases, dust, and bacteria from neighborhood (streets, factories, etc.) |
| c) Exhalations and disease germs from unclean clothing and unclean and unhealthy human bodies | containing in addition to less harmful ingredients, disease germs | |

a) The best temperature for the schoolroom is 68° Fahrenheit. If the temperature exceeds 70° there is depression of vitality and nervous tone, especially if the humidity is unusually high or low, as is often the case. German school authorities have found by experience that it is advisable to shorten school session or to dismiss pupils in warm weather if the temperature rises above 78–80° F.

There should be a thermometer in every schoolroom, and even if there is thermostat (automatic) control, or supervisory control by janitor or engineer, the teacher should keep a record on a temperature chart arranged for this purpose.

b) While the humidity (percentage of moisture in the air) may be excessive and depressing in warm spring or autumn days, the humidity is often too low, and consequently the air is too dry in cold weather in the schoolroom where the school is heated by furnace or steam. Favorable humidity is 40–60°. When humidity drops below 30° the excessive dryness of the air becomes a very unsanitary factor producing: (1) drying of the mucous membrane of nose and throat, with production or aggravation of catarrhal tendencies; (2) increase of nervous irritability with restlessness of pupils; (3) more rapid development of fatigue, with diminished working power of pupils.

The humidity of schoolroom air may be controlled by a humidifier which introduces moisture into the dry air most advantageously

⁴ Tigerstedt, *Textbook of Human Physiology*, p. 345.

in the main supply flue just after the air has been warmed by passing over the steam pipes. This moisture is supplied best in steam which can be controlled by a humidostat, so that the humidity is maintained automatically within certain prescribed limits.

c) Air when overheated loses some of its health-giving qualities in ways difficult to explain, partly at high temperatures by oxidation, and often gains a disagreeable odor from the burning or charring of fine dust particles. The air should never be heated above 100° Fahrenheit.

d) If the pupils in a schoolroom were healthy and clean and wore clean clothing, most of the disagreeable qualities of school air would be eliminated. Much emphasis should be placed on cleanliness of the schoolroom and of those who occupy it.

e) The inorganic particles in schoolroom dust are not very injurious to health under ordinary conditions, but the bacteria in the air may be deadly. These bacteria, out of doors, may lose power to do harm after a few hours, but in the quiet, darker nooks of a room they may retain disease-producing powers for weeks, months, and even years. It is vitally important that the schoolhouse and schoolroom should be constructed so that it will afford the least possible harbor for germs, and it should permit easy and perfect cleaning. The sharp angles and corners should be replaced by cove ceiling, round wall angles and half-round moldings at junction of floor and walls. The door and window casings should be flat, smooth, and rounded at the corners. The irregular moldings required by unsanitary architectural standards which accumulate dust so perfectly should be altogether lacking.

The floors should be of smooth, well-seasoned, carefully matched boards. The seats and desks and other furniture should be models of simplicity, with smooth surfaces and round angles. The features in school construction which are essential to cleanliness and protection of the atmosphere will not detract from desirable artistic effects. The schoolhouse should be cleaned, but never by dry sweeping or dry dusting. Frequent scrubbing is invaluable. Wet sawdust or oily brooms should be used on the floor for sweeping. Damp or oily cloths should be used for dusting. The vacuum system will in time take the place of other methods of cleaning schools as well as other buildings. In disinfection of rooms where cases of con-

tagious disease have occurred, careful fumigation should not cause neglect of sunning, airing, and thorough cleaning.

f) Where artificial light is required, no other alternative need be considered if electric lights are available. Heating appliances should be so arranged that no products of combustion, even from a stove, may gain access to the air of the schoolroom.

g) The schoolhouse should be so located that the air about it is not endangered by the proximity of any source of contamination. The schoolhouse should never be located on made ground, nor in vicinity of marshes, open drains, or sewers.

The best system of heating large school buildings is the combination of direct and indirect methods. The warmed air passes into the room at a temperature of 70° and supplementary heat when needed is furnished by radiators under the windows. When the building is not in use the direct system maintains sufficient heat in the building.

Ventilation in a large building is maintained by fans. If only one is used the plenum is preferable in order that air may be drawn from a favorable point. When the gravity system for the exhaust flue is maintained, where the exhaust flue carries foul air up by the side of the smoke flue, it is desirable to use the wind pump on the top of the exhaust flue on the roof of the building.

In small school buildings, or the one-room rural school, the stove in the room should never be used unjacketed. By a proper arrangement⁵ of a jacketed stove or simple furnace, with the exit flue running up by the side of the smoke flue and capped by a wind pump, the rural school may have as satisfactory a scheme of ventilation and heating as the most elaborate city school. In all schools outdoor air should be admitted through windows or window ventilators when the weather will permit, and when the street is not noisy. When window ventilation is used for any reason it is always better to lower all windows on one side of the room a little at the top, rather than to depend upon a larger opening in one or two windows, which will be more apt to produce troublesome draft.

The light supply and distribution is a matter of great importance

⁵ Different arrangements of ventilation for rural schools, utilizing similar principles, are described in the School Board Journal, April, 1908, p. 102 and April, 1909, p. 12.

in school sanitation. South and east are the best directions from which to get light. The schoolrooms should be lighted from the left side of the seated pupils. The windows should extend to the ceiling. The glass area should equal one-fifth of the floor area—more than this if windows are shaded by trees or neighboring buildings. Windows should have two sets of opaque shades which roll from the top and bottom of the windows. The windows should be kept clean.

In color, the ceiling should be a light buff or white. The walls should be light green or grayish green.

Difficulties arise concerning school desks and seats in respect to the demands relating to cost, hygienic requirements, and the specific needs of instruction. Little uniformity has resulted in the United States in the use of hygienic school furniture. The flat-topped movable table desks and light movable chairs have proved satisfactory in some schools for lower grades. The pupil should have separate desks and seats which are adjustable in height and for a minus distance. The school seat which represents the most careful study and judgment regarding school furniture at present is that called the Boston school seat.

Certain precautions within the scope of school sanitation are necessary to protect pupils from conveyance of possible infection from one to another. The common drinking-cup is properly and almost universally tabooed. The extent to which it may convey disease from one person to another is almost beyond belief. The chief avenue by which bacteria enter the body is through the mouth. This is quite at variance with the popular idea that most germs are inhaled into the lungs.

The evidence condemning the use of the common drinking vessel upon any occasion whether at school, church, or home is derived from three sources; (1) the frequent presence of disease-producing bacteria in the mouth; (2) the detection of pathogenic germs on the public cups; and (3) the discovery that where a number of persons drank from a cup previously used by the sick, some of them became ill.

Dr. Forbes of Rochester refers to an epidemic of diphtheria in his city which occurred among twenty-four persons and which was traced unmistakably to a common drinking-cup which all the sick had used.

The mortality statistics of the census bureau show that diphtheria, meningitis, bronchitis, tuberculosis, pneumonia, and grippe, all of which are

likely to be acquired by the use of the common cup, are responsible for nearly 400,000 deaths annually in the United States.

The introduction of bacilli into the body through the uninjured wall of the digestive tract, anywhere from the mouth downward, is the chief mode of infection with tuberculosis.⁶

The common drinking-cup should never be used in school, at home, or elsewhere. The drinking-fountain for schools is thoroughly sanitary and the best arrangement where there is running water. The system of individual drinking-cups is satisfactory when the cups are kept in a proper cupboard, covered to protect them from the dust, and under the supervision of the teacher. Individual drinking-cups should never be kept in desks of pupils.

The common towel should never be used. The best solution of the towel problem comes in the cheap, tough paper towels which are destroyed after being used once.

Pens, pencils, and books should be used as individual school property. The slate is not to be tolerated. Books should be disinfected before they go into the possession of another pupil. Molding clay should not be used by a second pupil in the lower grades. It cannot be disinfected and used again. The following lists embody important and practical suggestions regarding hygienic and sanitary habits for school children:

HEALTH "DON'TS" FOR SCHOOL USE⁷

Don't pick the nose; always carry a handkerchief.

Don't wet the fingers with saliva in turning the leaves of a book.

Don't put pencils in the mouth or moisten the point with the lips. Keep the point well sharpened.

Don't wipe pens in the hair.

Don't put pens in the mouth.

Don't put anything in the mouth except food and drink.

Don't "swap" candy, gum, whistles, or anything that is intended for the mouth.

Don't kiss upon the lips; kiss the forehead or cheek.

Don't allow the finger nails to become long or unclean; or neglect the teeth.

Don't face toward another person when coughing or sneezing.

⁶ Davidson, *Death in School Drinking-Cups*.

⁷ *American School Board Journal*, May, 1908.

SIX HEALTH RULES⁸

1. Fresh air and sunshine are necessary to good health.
2. Night air is as good as day air, and in cities where there is much dust, better.
3. Eat little fried food, pastry, cake, candy, and sugar.
4. Wash your hands before you eat.
5. Never lick your fingers when turning pages or counting money.
6. Avoid spitting, because it spreads consumption and other diseases.

In country districts where there is a local water supply for school use, great care should be exercised to make sure that it comes from a pure source. In districts where there is no water-carriage system for sewage the problem of arrangement for school toilets requires special attention. The privy vault should never be allowed on school grounds, even in remote rural districts. The water-tight, cemented cesspool, even, is not wholly defensible at the present day.

In small (one-room) rural schools the dry earth closets will satisfy sanitary requirements, but they need intelligent care and should always be located at least forty to fifty feet from the school-house.

It is desirable that the toilets should be under the schoolhouse roof, and this may be accomplished in rural or small village schools where there is running water, by the use of the septic tank for sewage disposal.

⁸ *American School Board Journal*, June, 1908 (Board of Education, Wilkes Barre, Pa.).

HYGIENE OF INSTRUCTION

Modern education attempts to give the pupil cultural training in preparation for citizenship, and for social and industrial efficiency. Characterized at different times by these and other guiding motives, the work of the schools has gone on through the ages. During more recent times spasmodic attempts have been made to so arrange this school process that it would not, while attempting to accomplish its ambitious and worthy purposes, be harmful to the biologic values which the pupil represents. The hygiene of instruction considers the effects of the educational process itself upon the health of the individual, and would so control and adjust the various factors which collectively make up school work that the pupil's health will not be injured while he is being prepared for future usefulness. That the process of education is always carried on without danger to the pupils' health, even the school men themselves sometimes doubt.

At a recent conference in New York City on the physical welfare of school children, a school principal declared that our present curriculum is manufacturing more physical defects every year than school physicians and school nurses can correct. To the surprise of the laymen present, the school men were of one mind as to the havoc wrought by school life upon the physical and mental energy of the child. We were told that eyes are weakened, if not ruined, by glazed paper, small type, lines of wrong length, unsteady or dazzling light, or prolonged concentration. Dry sweeping fills the air with dust, and combines with bad ventilation, lack of water, and dust-raising physical exercises, to supply conditions that favor the growth of disease germs, more particularly the tubercle bacilli. Seats and desks deform the spine and hips, and cramp the lungs. Required home-study deprives the child of play and sleep and accentuates the effects of harmful school environment. Highly trained teachers explain the composition of air in an atmosphere often more poisonous than that of the average city sweatshop. Boys and girls unable to breathe through the nose because of adenoids and enlarged tonsils are deprived of recess for not being able to describe the passage that leads from the nose to the windpipe and lungs. Children fortunate enough to be physically able to meet school requirements are handicapped in their studies, and for that reason reduced in industrial

efficiency, because they must march side by side with children suffering from removable physical defects.¹

In the past, education has been treated largely as the process of teaching various subjects to children. It was deemed essential that the teachers should know a great deal about the subjects which they were to teach and something about child-psychology. With the evolution of education and the theory related to it, more importance is being attached to the knowledge and supervision of the child-organism. It seems probable that in the near future, as much relative attention will be given, in the training of teachers, to the study of the nature and character, physical, intellectual, and moral, of the child as to the study of his environment and its details, by reaction to which he will be educated.

The understanding of child-life which is necessary to enable the teacher to judge the effect of schooling upon the pupil, must include not only knowledge of child-psychology, but also of child-biology and child-physiology.

First we must know what man is, for man is the far-off goal of all our pupils' development. Then we must discover how a baby grows into manhood, and just what Nature would have us do for him at every age and stage. Only when we have discovered the characteristics of every stage of childhood can we attempt to form a system of education, suited at every stage to gain the co-operation of Nature and thus train men and women of growth and balance, of health and vigor, power and efficiency.

The balance of organs in the child's body, in other words, his constitution in the literal derivative sense, is quite different at different epochs. The great mental changes during youth and early manhood are familiar to us all. The physical changes during childhood and early youth are equally great, but often pass unnoticed or poorly understood. Yet these changes modify or cause certain traits in the child.²

The training which the child is to get should be what is essentially designed for him in his unripe condition, for it cannot be similar to that of an adult. The child is the immature animal; so far different from its fully grown model as almost to want the name of "different creature."³

¹ W. H. Allen, "Broader Motive for School Hygiene," *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. CI, 1908.

² Tyler, *Growth and Education*.

³ Oppenheim, *Development of the Child*.

As educators have come to realize how different the child is from the adult—different not alone in size, but in structure and function, in relative proportions, in balance of organs, in constitution, in power of endurance, in fact, in every element which is concerned in the making-up of the final stage of maturity—it has become evident that this knowledge must be fundamental in judging what will be best for the child.

Consideration of the manifold and often subtle organic changes in the comparative development of childhood would be too long and technical a task at this time, but careful study of this relatively new and important phase of child-study will well repay any teacher who wishes to deal fairly and justly with the children who are being trained.

Without attempting any complete survey of the many difficult and intricate phases of this important field, brief reference may be made to some of the fundamental elements of the problem.

I. The pupil should present himself at school in the morning in the best possible condition to profit by the process of instruction. Two factors of daily living are prominently related to the pupil's condition and therefore are of direct importance to the school.

HOURS OF SLEEP REQUIRED AND MENTAL WORK PERMISSIBLE FOR CHILDREN OF DIFFERENT AGES

Age	Hours of Sleep	Time in Bed	Hours of Schoolroom and Other Mental Work
5-6.....	13	6 P. M. to 7 A. M.	3
6-8.....	12	7 P. M. to 7 A. M.	3½
8-10....	11½	7:30 P. M. to 7 A. M.	4
10-12....	11	8 P. M. to 7 A. M.	4½
12-14....	10½	8:30 P. M. to 7 A. M.	5 to 5½
14-16....	10	9 P. M. to 7 A. M.	6
16-18....	9½	9:30 P. M. to 7 A. M.	7
18-20....	9	10 P. M. to 7 A. M.	8

a) Rest and sleep after the previous day's activity. If the night's rest has not been sufficient to restore the organism completely after the exertions of the previous day, the child begins the day partly tired out, with crumpled or haggard nerve cells, quite unfit for normal, satisfactory responses to stimuli. If the child continues in this partially tired-out morning condition, there is a condition of chronic nervous exhaustion of some degree at least, and this will

prevent good school work, while it renders the child more susceptible to disease and may seriously interfere with physical, mental, and even moral growth and development. Many school children do not spend enough hours out of each twenty-four in bed in a room which is as widely open to the outdoor air as wide open windows will permit.

Nothing can make good to the individual the loss entailed by deficient sleep during childhood.

b) The child as a preparation for the day's programme in school, should eat an unhurried, nutritious breakfast, and get to school on time, without rushing. The child machine must be properly coaled up before beginning the work of the day. If the pupil does not sleep well, and does not eat a good breakfast, these faults should be corrected.

II. The school programme should be arranged for the class and adapted so far as necessary to the individual pupil with reference to genuine fatigue, which means quite normally a lessening of working power as the day proceeds. Fatigue resulting from a reasonable day's activity disappears after a sufficient night's rest.

Abnormal fatigue, or what Dr. Cowles has significantly called "pathological fatigue" may be due to many things. Overwork is commonly supposed to be one of them. It may be said, however, that in children this is not very frequently the case. Results usually attributed to "studying too hard" are owing very directly to something else. Much more frequently, dangerous fatigue is the result of unhealthy confinement within doors, or is owing to unwholesome shocks and puzzlings, and confusions, and conflicts of impulses resulting from the imposition of scatter-brain notions of teaching and discipline—imposed much too fast for the child to grow to, or even to comprehend.

Children who, through heredity or accidental stress, are unusually liable to pathological fatigue, should have special provisions made for their especial educational needs. Every large school should have the services of an expert teacher who has been technically trained for this particular work.*

To sum up: Fatigue in the schoolroom may be largely decreased, if not reduced to the minimum, by more frequent use of rest periods; by arranging stronger contrasts in the daily programme, as well as securing a wiser adjustment of difficult subjects to the best working hour; by patient and

* Smith Baker, "Fatigue in School Children," *Educational Review*, January, 1898.

wise training of pupils into better habits of study; by a better utilization of the doctrine of interest; by lessening nervous tension in the schoolroom; and by wise use of play under supervision.

There is a vital distinction between fatigue (*Ermüdung*) and weariness (*Müdigkeit*). A child at play may become fatigued, but never weary of his activity; a boy engaged at work in which he takes no interest may become so weary in fifteen minutes that he can accomplish nothing. . . . Tediousness produces the feeling of weariness which is distinctly different from fatigue itself.⁵

It should be remembered, however, that a feeling of weariness may quite normally come on with increasing fatigue, though the former is by no means a constant and accurate index of the latter.

Ribot says: "Fatigue in every shape is fatal to memory." Every teacher, therefore, should be familiar with the indication of fatigue, with the conditions which most rapidly induce it, and with the means that may be employed to avoid, to reduce, or to overcome it, so that the maximum of effort may be attained by the minimum expenditure of energy.

Our psychologists tell us that with the normal pupil mental fatigue in school work is quickly induced and also quickly passes away. Mental efficiency, or the increments of skill gained through mental training, is much more permanent in its character and is not soon lost. If this be true, in order to attain the highest possible maximum mental efficiency, with the greatest economy of effort, provide working periods with more frequent rest periods, and thus secure through this power of the mind to recuperate rapidly, an almost continuous high state of mental vigor. . . . The mind, instead of being as we supposed like an old-fashioned sensitized plate of the photographer, which required a long exposure, is, after all, more like the highly sensitive plate of the snapshot camera. . . . We need, especially in the lower grades, to bring in these more frequent rest or exercise periods, believing that the increments of power gained from mental activity will not be dissipated through such slight interruptions, and that efficiency of public school work will be greatly increased as well as relieved of much of its present drudgery.⁶

III. The eyes of school children should be protected from excessive strain, especially in the lower grades, by every possible means which ingenuity and forethought may devise. Abnormalities of

⁵ H. E. Kratz, "How May Fatigue in the Schoolroom Be Reduced to a Minimum?" *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1899), p. 1090.

⁶ *Ibid.*

the eyes which are either partially caused or aggravated by school work increase from the lower to the upper grades.

Indeed, extensive examinations of eyes of school children, in addition to showing the small proportion of normal eyes, have shown that a very large proportion present an unhealthy appearance, or even the beginning of disease of the deeper, more important structure of the eye. The least trouble was found in the lower grades, markedly increasing toward the higher, as did also the average degree of error, proving unquestionably the effect of the educational systems on the eye.⁷

Proper care of eyes in school work necessitates: (a) very little fine work for young children; (b) books with large, distinct letters and figures printed on unglazed paper; (c) use of large characters on clean blackboards; (d) use by pupils of coarse writing pens or soft pencils (slates should never be tolerated).

IV. Recess and frequent short intervals of rest and relaxation between periods should be preserved in the arrangement of the school programme at whatever cost of convenience, or difficulty of supervision.

Kraepelin, Friedrich, and others have observed that pupils work best when school sessions are interspersed with short periods of rest.⁸

School instruction is for the mentally and physically growing child *work*, and consumes his mental energy. If it becomes overwork, it checks his mental and physical development. It is shown by these and other experiments, and insisted on by many educators, that short intensive study hours are better than long ones. Especially with children in the lower grades, fatigue increases very rapidly with the continuation of instruction. The child should be granted a recess of from eight to fifteen minutes after every sixty minutes, the time to be spent in attention to bodily needs, to rest, and to the taking of nourishment. The severer studies should find a place in the earlier morning hours. Whether there should be any afternoon session at all is questionable. At any rate, only light exercises, such as penmanship, singing, etc., should be permitted in the afternoon.⁹

It should be remembered that formal gymnastics rank with mathematics among the most rapidly fatiguing of all forms of instruction.

⁷ S. T. Easton, "Public Schools and Eyesight," *Education*, February, 1901.

⁸ O'Shea, *Dynamic Factors in Education*, p. 284.

⁹ Patrick, *Studies in Psychology*, Vol. I, p. 80.

V. The school schedule should not require formal or artificial tests and examinations which seriously disturb the nervous state or health of the pupil, either at the time of the test, or by a period of abnormal nervous tension during preparation for such tests.

There is another habit of our school which I have frequently had occasion to deprecate. I allude to the system of term examinations in vogue in many schools for the purpose of determining the class standing of the pupils. The procedure calls into play in a most extraordinary manner the ambition of the pupils, for the reason that their promotion is contingent upon their ability to pass it successfully. For weeks before the expected trial the hours of work are prolonged, the rest interfered with, the child becomes nervous and irritable, and the tone of health impaired. The eyes often suffer seriously under the baneful influence of this prolonged strain. I have very many times been annoyed and disappointed over almost sudden relapse of choroidal disease, in patients under observation, often with an increase of near-sight indicating a distention of the eyeball, brought about by the stress of work required in preparation for the examination at the close of the school year.¹⁰

VI. Promotions by subjects with a relatively loose classification of students in grades or classes are much more favorable to the health of pupils than the traditional promotion of an entire class at the end of the year or half-year. This is particularly important for girls in the upper-grammar and high-school grades, when the promotion tests are more severe and "caste feeling" as related to standing in class, and promotion with class, is very pronounced. While it often happens that the desire to keep up with the class may serve as a useful incentive to do good work, still it frequently operates disadvantageously to the individual pupil. Not infrequently the high-school girl, whose health at puberty demands a partial programme, sometimes at menstruation several days' absence, or perhaps the dropping out of school for a year, suffers such chagrin and unhappiness that parents and teachers allow her to struggle along, even though she may suffer serious and permanent injury. Educational organization should be elastic enough to provide for the needs of individuals—within reasonable limits—as well as for the training of typical groups.

In fact the normal child should not be the primary consideration of any

¹⁰ S. D. Risley, "Defective Vision in School Children," *Educational Review*, April, 1892.

system of promotion. The non-normal child, who belongs to the majority, or at least to a large proportion, is crying for recognition. He must be given the opportunity to travel his own pace. Even the normal child of one year is not necessarily the normal child of another year. The conditions which produce retardation or advancement are several, and these may vary. The child's own growth rhythms, for example, may put him in a condition to do normal work one year, and less or more than normal work another year.¹¹

VII. The teacher is the most important factor in relation to the hygiene of instruction.

a) Higher standards of health must be demanded of the teacher if she or he is to exert an influence upon the sensitive, plastic child which is salutary and altogether wholesome.

b) The teacher must be protected from overpressure and chronic fatigue through: (1) personal rational habits of living; (2) limitation by school authorities of the teacher's duties so that health preservation is possible.

Various aspects of the hygiene of instruction have been suggestively summed up in the conclusion of two writers:

1. The mental effort of which the child is capable is primarily connected with physical activity and with sense perceptions.

2. The physical activity most needed by developing childhood is not found in formal and artificial systems of exercise, but in plays and games, in the various occupation imitations of childhood, in gymnastic games, and in the progressively difficult demands of well-directed manual training. These present mental as well as physical problems, fully adapted to the child's stages of development, and insure adequate mental and physical growth up to the age of eight or ten.

3. The conditions favorable to the mental development of a child seven years of age are not found in arithmetical processes, but in concrete number relations; not in the science of language, but in its use; not in the use of symbols, as in reading, nor in the efforts at fine motor co-ordinations, as in writing with pen or pencil, but in drawing and picture writing on the black-board (in games and industrial training) and in the fascinating study of plants and animals.

4. The wholesome development of the child's nervous system depends upon maintaining his interest in school work, fostering and directing his spirit of inquiry, and satisfying his love and need of activity. Substitution

¹¹ Burk, "Promotion of Bright and Slow Children," *Educational Review*, March, 1900.

and suggestion must take the place of prohibition and repression. The true discipline is the self-control of interest.

5. The teacher must not be misled into demanding logical sequence of continuity from the child. Superficiality is both the safeguard and the stimulus of childhood.

6. Not less than one-half of the school time of the primary-school pupils should be devoted to physical activity in its various aspects, and the remaining time should be devoted largely to nature-work, drawing, oral descriptions, and oral reproductions.

7. The child's increase of mental power is not in proportion to the mental effort he is forced to make, but is largely determined by natural physical growth.

8. The final test of primary-school work must be—is it joyous? does it give full scope to the play impulse?¹²

The physical organism, regarded from one standpoint, is a contrivance for generating energy needed for the support of all activity, whether physical or mental. When the stock of available energy in the organism at any time is depleted beyond a given point then serious disturbances must ensue. In a fatigued condition one cannot accomplish as much ordinarily as when he is refreshed. His perception, his memory, his reason, are rendered less keen and ready and accurate; his endurance in labor of any sort is lessened; he cannot perform tasks demanding the finest and most exact motor co-ordinations. Some pupils will become unduly tense in all their actions, while others will grow lethargic and indifferent. Restlessness and irritability will take possession of a schoolroom under such conditions.

If one is to attain the greatest efficiency, he must use his energy economically; he must avoid all practices that squander his resources. Needless motor tensions drain off the vital forces without accomplishing anything, and they must be reduced to the minimum. And first of all by changing the state of mind which begets them. Worry, fear, self-consciousness, overscrupulousness, dissipate energy. Teachers especially need to bathe their spirits freely in the best books, the best art, the best music, and the best social life. They should keep an eye on their pupils, too, and seek to encourage in them habitual attitudes of courage and hope and joyfulness. It should be the aim to do one's work without wasteful muscular tensions. Usually tasks requiring very fine adjustments entail waste, and they should not be undertaken when unnecessary. It is the teacher's duty to banish from the schoolroom all implements, in the management of which there is demanded precise co-ordination, where coarser activities would

¹² Fitz, "Hygiene of Instruction," *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1898), p. 545.

answer just as well. Very fine writing, or sewing or weaving and the like should be abolished. All the equipments of the school, especially the seats, must be chosen with the end in view to reduce to the lowest point the waste of nervous energy in pupils. Finally, well-poised, calm-voiced, and calm-featured teachers, who are at the same time positive and definite and, in short, *strong*, are the most important pieces of apparatus that can be placed in any schoolroom, regarded from the standpoint of the conservation of the nervous energy of pupils.

In arranging the daily programme it should be the aim to have pupils give concentrated attention for brief periods only to the work in hand. One hour of real hard work is worth three of mind-wandering, and it is far more conservative of vital forces. Some account should be taken of the "course of power" in the day, and an effort should be made to get all school work done while the energies are at flood tide. Especial pains should be taken to so arrange the programme that it will not be necessary to hold pupils to their tasks when the waning of their powers leads to relaxed attention, so that they fall into frequent errors, and thus put themselves into an unhappy relation toward their environment.¹⁸

¹⁸ M. V. O'Shea, *Dynamic Factors in Education* (1906), p. 297.

HEALTH INSTRUCTION

This is one of the most perplexing problems in education today. No phase of instruction seems more important than to teach the child how to live in a healthful manner. No subject is taught, on the whole, so unsuccessfully. In considering the traditional and present methods of teaching physiology and hygiene, several purposes appear to have exercised varying degrees of control over such teaching. These purposes may be classified thus:

a) To teach these subjects—physiology and hygiene—as branches of science, with observance of methods employed in other branches of science and with applications of this knowledge to hygiene when such applications appear to be feasible. The teacher possessing this as the main motive, has ordinarily had more training in pure science than in hygiene, and the teaching shows corresponding distribution of emphasis.

b) To give instruction in facts and principles of hygiene on a basis of as much anatomy and physiology as seems necessary to support the hygiene teaching. This kind of teaching is often as theoretical on the hygienic side as would be given with the first-named purpose, and frequently the scientific basis is inaccurate and generally defective.

c) To provide the temperance instruction required by law in the various states and to supplement such instruction with the additional material contained in the required textbooks. This represents the prevailing motive and method in the teaching of physiology and hygiene in the schools of the country. The teaching is done in obedience to law, often in a perfunctory manner, without much interest on the part either of teacher or pupil and with very little apparent after-benefit, so far as one may judge from the impressions recalled in after years by those who received this type of instruction.

Now, nothing can be more readily shown than that in the case of most individuals the knowledge of the ill effects of unhygienic activities does not in itself result in the formation of hygienic habits. . . . We eat welsk rarebit and pumpkin pie, in spite of nightmare and nervous indigestion. It

takes something more than physiology—more than toothache itself—to make children use a tooth-brush after every meal. And just as certainly, boys who do not stand aghast at the abasement and the menace of the drunkard, will not be prevented from drinking solely through knowledge of the various ill effects of alcohol on the heart and nervous system.¹

An investigation of the methods and effects of the conventional teaching of temperance, physiology, and hygiene in public schools, which was conducted by a special committee of the New York State Science Teachers Association showed that in a moderate number of schools where the instruction was given in an earnest fashion by teachers who were alive to the reasonable possibilities, some satisfactory results were obtained.

d) To inculcate in pupils habits of healthful living in relation to personal, home and community life, through the study of sanitation, bacteriology, simple facts of hygiene, and by encouragement of wholesome play, athletic ideals, a spirit of reasonable personal ambition, and social helpfulness. This method and approach have been utilized all too rarely, but have when used been productive of splendid results.

On the whole and up to the present time, the teaching of hygiene in the schools has been inadequate and unsuccessful. The following reasons are proposed to explain in part this lack of success:

1. The teachers generally lack conviction regarding the value of the instruction as ordinarily given and, partly in consequence of this, have little if any interest in such teaching. There is abundant reason for this lack of conviction and interest as the methods of teaching are felt to be faulty and the effects insufficient to justify the time and effort given to the subject.

2. The teachers are too frequently wanting in the practical personal standards and habits of individual hygienic living which are essential as the primary elements to give authority and power to such teaching with reference to its applications. The effective teacher of this subject must give expression in personality and conduct to the principles of hygiene which are being taught.

3. The teachers in the majority of instances do not possess the information, the scientific and practical knowledge needed for the

¹Yocum, "Teaching of Hygiene in Elementary Schools," *American School Board Journal*, November, 1908.

clear presentation of material which should be wisely selected and adapted to the needs of the pupil at the time.

4. Teachers give as one reason for neglecting hygiene, that they are often compelled to struggle with a curriculum, which requires more than they are able to teach and more than pupils are able to learn in the time allowed. While an overcharged curriculum may explain, it surely does not justify, the violation of law and the dropping of hygiene from our school curriculum. If there is any class of citizen who should teach and practice respect for law as law, it is the teacher. Parents, school directors, county and state superintendents, university presidents, social workers, owe it not only to themselves, but to the American school teacher, either to repeal the laws that enjoin instruction in hygiene or else so to adjust the curriculum that teachers can comply with those laws. The present situation that discredits both law and hygiene is most demoralizing to teacher, pupil, and community. Many of us might admire the man teacher who frankly says he never explains the evils of cigarettes because he himself is an inveterate smoker of cigarettes. But what must we think of the school system that shifts to such a man the right and the responsibility of deciding whether or not to explain to underfed and overstimulated children of the slums the truth regarding cigarettes? If practice and precept must be consistent, shall the man be removed, shall he change his habits, shall the law regarding instruction in hygiene be changed, or shall other provision be made for bringing child and essential facts together in a way that will not dull the child's receptivity?

Teachers are made to feel that while arithmetic and reading are essential, hygiene is not essential. Whatever may be the facts regarding the relative value of arithmetic and hygiene, whether or not our state legislators have made a mistake in declaring hygiene to be essential, are questions altogether too important for child and state to be left to the discretion of the individual teacher or superintendent. It is fair to the teachers who say they cannot afford to turn aside from the three R's to teach hygiene, to admit that they have not hitherto identified the teaching of hygiene with the promotion of the physical welfare of children. Teachers awake to the opportunity will sacrifice not only arithmetic but any other subject for the sake of promoting children's health. They do not really believe that arithmetic is more important than health. What they mean to say is that hygiene, as taught by them, has not heretofore had an appreciable effect upon their pupils' health.³

5. The present teaching of physiology and hygiene involves too many facts of anatomy and physiology. It is doubtful whether any teaching of anatomy and physiology as such is advisable in ele-

³ W. H. Allen, *Civics and Health*, p. 4.

mentary or grammar grades, and very little if any is needed in the high school. Not until the student is of college age, at least, is the study of human anatomy and physiology beneficial to the individual, except in the presentation of very general facts and principles relating to the body's construction and function which may strengthen the argument in support of hygienic living. That is, the claim here is made that nowhere in the school should these subjects be taught systematically as branches of science. Much of the material of instruction in physiology and hygiene is uninteresting, difficult, and beyond the clear comprehension of the pupil. One author of an elementary-school textbook very frankly entitles his first chapter "Dry Bones." Educators know that hygiene is required by law. They assume that it is an important subject and that the child must know the anatomy and physiology to understand the hygiene. And the children try to memorize dry details of physiology and to understand facts and principles which are too complex for them. The most absurd and ludicrous records of school tests are made up by the ridiculous, grotesque, not to say inaccurate answers to questions in human anatomy and physiology. And the same types of answers result from all kinds of teaching, indicating that something is inherently wrong in the materials and methods of teaching. Much of the description in textbooks is beyond them, and many of the illustrative cuts are not understood. In addition to the foregoing, the direction of the pupil's attention to the structure and function of his own body results often in disturbed self-consciousness; is pedagogically unsound; and contributes little to hygiene teaching. On the contrary, it may directly interfere with the desired hygienic application and antagonize the pupil in relation to the whole subject. The psychology of physiology teaching has not yet been worked out in any satisfactory fashion.

6. The instruction in this branch of education is too largely theoretical, too little related to, and judged by, the conduct of the pupils. The tendency now throughout the schools is to value mere information less and to esteem more highly useful reactions and habits. In this field most of all, unless it be in the moral field which it is impossible and undesirable to separate from the broadly hygienic, it is fundamentally important to judge results of hygiene

teaching by the practical application in actual and immediate living.

7. Too much emphasis in hygiene is directed to the personal health of the pupil, too little to the health and well-being of members of the home and of the community. The child is not interested in his own health, nor should he be except as he realizes in a rather vague way that "to be well and strong" enables him to do things that seem worth while, to help the members of the household, the teacher and other friends, to be useful generally. Actual answers to questions concerning health obtained recently in different elementary grades indicate the direction of pupils' interests. In the first four grades the following questions elicited the answers quoted:

a) *What does it mean to feel well?* The word happy was used in nearly all of the answers. These answers were given: "glad"; "feel like doing things"; "nice"; "not cross"; "laughing all the time"; "running and jumping."

b) *Why do you wish to feel well?* Nearly all said: "So I can play and go to school."

c) *How can you become big and strong?* "Bathe"; "Eat good food"; "Drink milk"; "Climb a lot"; "Mind Doctor (school physician) and Miss (gymnasium teacher)."

d) *How can you help others grow big and strong?* "Take the baby to the Park every day"; "Make your small children to wear rubbers when it rains"; "Don't let your father smoke in the kitchen." One little first-grade girl with a strong instinct for self-preservation, said: "I wouldn't help other people, I might catch it myself."

In the fifth grade the following questions were asked: (a) What does health mean to you? (b) Why do you want to be well? (c) How can you become well and strong? (d) Name the persons who help you most in keeping well and strong.

Nineteen papers were collected. The idea of "feeling well," "happy," "strong," "bright," "lively," "not sick," was expressed fourteen times in connection with the first question. One child said, "Health makes you feel like going some and not to feel lazy." Another, "To feel well makes you feel like being out of doors," and another replied, "Health is when you are in danger of Tuberkolosis."

To the second question fifteen pupils gave emphasis to the fact

that they want to be well in order "to go to school," "to be out of doors," "to be able to see friends," "to romp in the park," "to chase with my dog." One said, "I want to be well for when I am sick I have pains and that makes my mother feel sad." Another answered, "I want to be well for then you don't have to pay Dr.'s bills." This economic value of health was repeatedly expressed by the East-side boys.

To the third question, the advice given for maintenance of health was related generally to proper food, clothing, exercise, and sleep. Of the person who helped in keeping them well and strong, mother held first place with the doctor a close second. With the East-side boys this order was reversed.

In the sixth grade the questions asked were practically the same, with the addition of: "Is it better to play out of doors or in the house and why?" These children gave the same emphasis to health as a means of happiness. Two said, "Health is happiness." All gave expression to the general idea that being well means out-of-door freedom and ability to do things and to go to places. Practically the same health suggestions were given with strong emphasis upon exercise. This was especially evident in the papers written by the East-side boys. One boy said, "Exercise two times a day sometimes," and another, "Sure it is better to always play out of doors."

The question regarding the care of others brought some interesting answers: "If I am sick and it is contagious, not to let others get it"; "do for others like helping to get a milk station for babies"; "Be careful about spitting on floors"; "Tell people to sleep with windows open"; while one child surprises us with this store of "Don'ts": "Don't put snow down their backs; Don't breathe in other people's breath; Don't let somebody eat from your plate or drink from your cup."

These children were unanimous in the decision that mother helps more than anyone else in keeping them well. Father with the ability to pay bills was mentioned three times, the doctor, eight times, the street cleaner, janitor, milkman, and policeman were also mentioned. One child said, "My father helps me most, he keeps me strict and clean," while an analytical youth replied in this manner: "Mother (she cares for me); Father (the same); Milkman (because of pure

milk); Policeman (because of law and justice); Teacher (because of education)." All agreed it is better to play out of doors than in the house.

In the seventh grade the questions were the same in spirit with the addition of, "In order to be well and strong what are some of the things necessary to both plants and animals?"

To the first question all responded freely giving the same emphasis to the happiness side of life. One wrote: "Health means happiness, comfort, joy." In reply to: "Why do you wish to be well and strong," the answers were similar to those received from the fifth and sixth grades, only they were more definitely and maturely expressed. Among the answers were, "I want to be well to have plenty of schooling and games"; "I want to be well so I can play basket ball tonight"; "I want to be well to have a good time, be happy and as God wants me to be." The health suggestions were much like those noted before, pure food, exercise, cleanliness, being emphasized. The question regarding the care of plants brought out the ideas of similar care—they should, like a person, be bathed, given good food, air, and sunlight.

In the eighth grade the pupils stated that health means "success," "joy," "strength," "pleasure," "rosy cheeks," and "happiness." They want to be well that they may "have fun," "go to church, school and parties," "gain weight," and "not be a drudge to other people." Their health suggestions are confined mainly to the fresh-air exercise problem, while those for helping others are rather more surprising: "Don't spit in open places"; "Be clean at home same as at school"; "Keep yourself well; that will help others"; "Behave so you don't put an extra strain on your teacher"; "Don't pet anybody; come to school without an examination."

8. Another reason for unsatisfactory results in hygiene teaching is that too much attention is given to disease and not enough to health. This has been the case in much of the temperance instruction. Children may sometimes be instilled with wholesome fear by presentation of pathological effects of alcohol and narcotics. More frequently, however, if not depressed by disease pictures, they consider facts with wonder, sometimes with amusement, often with skepticism and indifference, but the constructive health influence would be much better gained by pointing out the domestic, social,

and economic evils resulting from intemperance and giving strong emphasis to ennobling ideals, or to positive standards of health, and power to do.

9. The present textbooks are on the whole quite unsatisfactory, because they contain too much anatomy and physiology with illustrations which are either not understood or too largely negative in effect. Very few textbooks contain enough sanitation, public health, bacteriology, practical individual, social, and industrial hygiene.

10. With the present prevalent method of teaching physiology and hygiene as a branch of science, error is made in teaching this subject in the first year in high school, before the pupil has had natural science, physics, chemistry, and zoölogy, which usually come in the later high-school years.

CONSIDERATIONS RELATING TO THE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF HYGIENE

I. Health teaching includes two factors: (*a*) hygiene—the healthful conduct of the individual; (*b*) sanitation—the maintenance of an environment favorable to human health. Both aspects should be kept properly balanced and interrelated, in the educational progress of the child. No more human anatomy and physiology should be taught in elementary or high school than is necessary to make clear hygienic application, and this is very little indeed, much less than is taught now throughout the schools of the country. The study of his own body or mind by the pupil through systematic and detailed analysis should not be attempted until the individual is nearly or quite mature. Too early study of this kind not infrequently leads to morbid self-consciousness which may involve the body as well as the mind.

The power to concentrate attention upon oneself is a sign either of a diseased body, a diseased mind, or a highly trained mind.

The problem of health is not how to have a healthy stomach, but how not to know that you have a stomach, which comes to the same thing. The maintenance of health depends not upon continuous attention to bodily needs—which will wreck the health of the strongest—but on the formation of healthy habits and the value of such habits is that, once formed, they can be left to the subconscious mind, whilst the conscious self instead of feeling itself forever chained to the body of this death can dance in its fetters.*

* Saleeby, *Health, Strength, and Happiness*, p. 13.

The cellular structure of the body, as bearing upon exercise and exhaustion; the rapid multiplication of microbes and bacteria in relation to antiseptic and prophylactic treatment; the menace of cats, house flies, and mosquitoes, and the quick souring of milk; precautions necessary to the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis; oxygen as a purifier of the blood; the cubic air space that should be allowed for each individual indoors; the principles of ventilation; the general functions of heart, lungs, arteries, and veins without regard to particular valves and veins; the relation of crookedness, decay, and absence of first and second teeth to digestion, and the precautions necessary to protect their enamel; tests for common food adulterants and the laws regarding pure foods and public health in general; the relation of overfeeding and overexercise to mental torpidity; marked symptoms of dangerous diseases for which a physician is needed; the usual remedies for familiar forms of sickness commonly given home treatment; all prophylactic precautions possible to the masses—if these and other facts directly bearing upon healthy habits are associated with them through continual repetition and persistent practice, little time will remain in the elementary school for the details necessary to the mastery of physiology as a science.

Since hygiene means habit, the general basis for the grouping of hygienic data should not be anatomical and physiological structure, but the activities that make health, whether they are personal, social, or political. For example, all useful knowledge bearing upon the circulation of the blood should not be centered about the heart and lungs, but rather all facts likely to serve as a stimulus to the breathing of fresh air should be grouped together or all that tend to result in cleanliness of person and environment.⁴

There is a growing body of conviction in the minds of many that the illustrative material for health instruction should be taken from actual life, even if this involves certain morbid conditions in the environment, but that butcher-shop specimens should never be used, nor should dead creatures and dissections of animals in the laboratory be employed in the teaching of physiology and hygiene.

II. Teaching hygiene and sanitation in the schools should aim at direct inculcation of health habits as much as at the imparting of knowledge concerning hygiene and sanitation. School credit for hygiene teaching should be based partly and primarily upon the extent to which the pupil lives hygienically. Credit in hygiene is now included in the requirements for graduation from the New

⁴Yocum, "Teaching of Hygiene in the Elementary School," *American School Board Journal*, November, 1908, p. 4.

York public schools and also for promotion from grade to grade. The first item in these requirements reads:

Practical hygiene.—The effort and success of the student to follow out the instructions in hygiene on matters of cleanliness of the face, and fingernails, mouth, teeth, hair and clothing, should form the greater part of the item.

III. Hygiene should be taught continuously throughout the school life of the child. Such instruction in the elementary school can best be given, not through a special course in hygiene, but by the natural, reasonable application of any fact or principle which may arise in connection with any subject, to the problem of healthful living. Such applications may be made sometimes in school assembly and frequently in schoolrooms to the class of children or to the individual pupil. Frequently opportunity will be found in relation to season of year, weather, interest in games and festivals. Correlation should be made with other subjects of the school curriculum, e. g., nature-study, primitive life, industry, etc., wherever such applications in health teaching may be made in a reasonable and effective way.

Every step takes on new meaning when the learner sees its place in the series of operations culminating in the commercial food supply of his own community, its sanitary regulation and domestic consumption. The elements of physiology and hygiene, and of physics and chemistry, are also called into requisition; they are all indispensable in fixing values of industrial products and determining economy in technical operation. What makes for hygienic living is as well worth knowing from the economic standpoint as what mechanical appliance will most increase the output. A proper study of the industries, therefore, I contend, will bring about a unified and closely correlated course in the biological and physical sciences by way of supplying the information wanted by the child in adjusting himself to the real world.⁵

In the elementary school as well as in the high school and college, correlation may be made between hygienic and ethical and social values. The fundamental ethical principles are closely related to the large, primitive, physical, and racial aspects of living.

IV. While attention of course should be given to the personal health of pupils in teaching hygiene, much emphasis should be

⁵ J. E. Russell, "School and Industrial Life," *Educational Review*, December, 1909.

placed, as already suggested, upon the health of school, home, and community, and the obligations of the pupil in relation to these social interests.

Children, like adults, can be interested in other people, in rules of conduct, in social conditions, in living and working relations more easily than in their own bodies. The normal healthy child thinks very little of himself apart from the other boys and girls, the games, the studies, the animals, the nature wonders, the hardships that come to him from outside. . . . Human interest attaches to what parks or excursions are doing for sickly children, how welfare work is improving factory employees, how small-pox is conquered by vaccination, how insurance companies refuse to take risks upon the lives of men or women addicted to the excessive use of alcohol or tobacco. Other people's interests—tenement conditions, factory rules—can be described in figures and actions that appeal to the imagination and impress upon the mind pictures that are repeatedly re-awakened by experience and observation on the playground, at home, on the way to school or to work. "Once upon a time" will always arrest attention more quickly than "The human frame consists—." What others think of me helps me to obey the law—statutory, moral, or hygienic—more than what I know of the law itself.⁶

Because the problems of health have to do principally with environment—home, street, school, business—it is worth while trying to relate hygiene instruction to industry and government, to preach health from the standpoint of industrial and national efficiency rather than of individual well-being.⁷

Sanitation then, in its various aspects, should form a prominent part of the health instruction of the pupil at all ages. Bacteriology has a legitimate place in the high school and in simpler presentation even in the elementary schools.

Such courses should be given in the public schools in such grades as to reach the children between eight and sixteen years old; these courses should consist in their simplest form of demonstrations, through use of agar or gelatin plates, of the existence and distribution of bacteria in air, water, milk, dust, feces, etc., and especially on hands; extending somewhat in scope and in individual experimental work as the grades are ascended. Microscopes would not be essential and the necessary apparatus and media could be furnished at a very low cost. . . . In the high schools, gradual advance in the detail of experiments should be arranged with the quantitative experiments, possibly some species work, and the microscope should be introduced.⁸

⁶ Allen, *Civics and Health*, pp. 7-8. ⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

⁸ H. W. Hill, "Bacteriology as a Non-Technical Course for Public Schools," *Science*, November 5, 1909, p. 627.

V. The textbooks for health instruction in the future will differ widely from the great majority in present use. These must present for teacher and pupil the impersonal material of sanitation, bacteriology, civics, applied sociology.

VI. The pupil should get health instruction from many sources, from parents, family doctor, older brothers and sisters. So far as the school is concerned, the teacher who knows the pupil best and is brought into closest contact with him will have the best chance to teach health as well as ethics. In the elementary school the grade teacher will have this opportunity and responsibility. In the high school this task will fall to the special teacher who has the greatest interest in health teaching, the best preparation for such instruction, and the most favorable opportunity to influence personality and habits of the student. With the present trend in education the teacher of physical education will be most favorably situated to deal with the personal, social and ethical aspects of health. The bacteriology must be taught by the teacher who has had special training in this phase of biology with the laboratory methods.

VII. Finally, the accomplishment of this broad, well-rounded health instruction in the schools must necessitate a clear appreciation by boards of education, superintendents, and principals of what should and may be accomplished. The teacher must have broad and thorough preparation for this instruction. Such professional training must be given in the institutions where teachers are prepared for their work. If teachers are already overburdened and have too many subjects now, to learn and to teach, then other things must give way and make place for this health side of education if it is as important as it appears to be at present.

Passing reference only is made here to the teaching of sex hygiene in view of the encyclopedic report on this subject, presented by Professor Henderson in the *Eighth Yearbook* of this society.

Instruction with reference to sex is, in many respects, the most vital and important phase of health education. The possible direct and indirect benefits of needed work in this line upon the well-being of the individual, the home, and society at large cannot be overestimated.

Adequate instruction in sex hygiene cannot be given until:

(a) Enlightened public opinion recognizes sufficiently the necessity for such instruction, and exhibits confidence in the ability of responsible advisors of children and youth to give the instruction needed; (b) Teachers are intelligent, wise, and tactful enough to give such instruction and guidance successfully. Comparatively few teachers today are capable of meeting the obligations which are involved in relation to the teaching of sex hygiene.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The term physical education is employed in some institutions and by some thinkers and writers to include all the different factors in education which have to do with the health of the pupil or student. Physical education is used here more narrowly and technically as referring to the supervision of large fundamental motor activities, expressed in play, games, dancing, swimming, gymnastics, and athletics.

The history of physical education presents in interesting progression the different ideas obtaining through the period of recorded history regarding the relationship of physical education to the life and education of the human being. The Greek idea as developed by the Athenians represented a balanced conception and practical realization of the relation between the physical and other aspects of education which have not been equaled since that period. The aim of the Athenians was to develop a beautiful mind in a beautiful body.

Everything that is good [says Plato in the *Timaeus*] is fair and the fair is not without measure, and the animal who is fair may be supposed to have measure. Now we perceive lesser symmetries and comprehend them, but about the highest and greatest we have no understanding; for there is no symmetry greater than that of the soul and body. This, however, we do not perceive, nor do we allow ourselves to reflect that when a weaker or lesser frame is the vehicle of a great and mighty soul, or, conversely, when a little soul is incased in a large body, then the whole animal is not fair, for it is defective in the most important of all symmetries; but the fair mind in the fair body will be the fairest and loveliest of sights to him who has the seeing eye.

Well might Charles Kingsley say of the Greeks, "To produce health, that is, harmony and sympathy and grace, in every faculty of mind and body, was their notion of education." The sculpture and literature which have come down to us from the best period of Greek civilization show how remarkably they achieved their ideals of beauty.

The climax of the physical education of the Greeks occurred in the Olympic games. It is a sad commentary on the sanity of the present time that in the attempt to revive the Olympic games, the

contest which has won most popular favor is the Marathon race. This may have been useful in a Homeric age, but it is entirely out of place in our modern world. Many boys of high-school age at least have without doubt been injured during the last few years in training for, or participating in, "Marathon races."

The dualistic philosophy of the early Christian era extending down to the Middle Ages gave no opportunity for physical education or adequate care of health. So long as the body was considered evil, the enemy of the spirit, sanity was lacking and rational education was neglected.

With the revival of learning, consideration was given to physical education with other aspects of human culture. There were early efforts to express both in theory and practice, the idea of physical education as derived from the study of the classics and the more recent influence of the age of chivalry.

Vittorino da Feltra (1378-1446), considered the first Italian schoolmaster of the new era, introduced in his school at Mantua, dancing, riding, fencing, swimming, wrestling, running, jumping, and archery. He seems to have been much ahead of his time, as outside of the training of young noblemen in various parts of Europe, no similar school is recorded until Basedow opened the Philanthropinum at Dessau in 1774. In the meantime several educational reformers wrote in liberal-minded fashion about physical education.

Martin Luther recommended the knightly exercises of fencing and wrestling. Joachim Comerarius (1500-1574) published a brief dialogue of bodily exercise, believing that boys should be encouraged to run, jump, wrestle, fence, etc. Comenius (1592-1671) believed in education through the senses and was first to enumerate the principles which lie at the foundation of kindergarten philosophy. He thought that a half-hour of recreation should follow each hour of study. Montaigne (1533-1592) is often quoted: Health and strength are necessary—

for the soul will be oppressed if not assisted by the body. . . .

Our very exercise and recreation, running, marching, etc., will be a good part of our study. . . . I should have the outward mien and behavior, and the disposition of his limbs formed at the same time with his mind. . . .

It is not a soul; it is not a body we are training up; it is a man; and we

ought not to divide him into two parts and, as Plato says, we are not to fashion one without the other, but make them draw together like two horses harnessed to a coach.

John Locke (1632-1704) says:

Keep the body in strength and vigor so that it may be able to obey and execute the orders of the mind. . . .

A sound mind in a sound body is a short but full description of a happy state in this world. He that hath these hath little more to wish for and he that wants either of them would be but little the better for anything else.

Emile Rousseau (1712-78) says:

The body must needs be vigorous in order to obey the soul; a good servant ought to be robust. . . . The weaker the body, the more it commands, the stronger it is, the better it obeys. . . . In order to learn to think we must exercise our bodies which are the instruments of our intelligence.

Pestalozzi (1746-1827) attempted to devise a system of school gymnastics based upon the nature of the body, and tried to combine industrial as well as general bodily training with mental and moral education in his experiments for the amelioration of the common people.

The essence of elementary gymnastics [says Pestalozzi] consists in nothing else than a series of exercises of the joints, in which is learned, step by step, all that the child can learn with respect to the structure and movements of the body and its articulations.

In this form of explanation Pestalozzi was one of the first to formalize in theory the process of bodily development, to make it a mechanical method of subjective and artificial control, and to favor an anatomical (as distinguished from a functional) idea of physical education which is subject to serious question at the present time.

Guts Muths (1759-1839) who taught at the Schnepfenthal for over fifty years, defined gymnastics as a system of exercises having bodily perfection for their aim. Here again is a tendency expressed, to develop the body for its own sake and somewhat independently of its true relation to mind and soul.

F. J. Jahn (1778-1852) is known as the "father of German gymnastics." Jahn was an extreme patriot and his desire was to rebuild the bodies of the young Germans in order that they might withstand the French. Jahn used games to some extent, but later

devised a great variety of forms of apparatus whose use seemed designed to develop strength of body in the shortest possible time. Jahn performed a great service to military Germany, but in his work scant respect was paid to physiology and anatomy and to some of the psychologic needs in the education of the young.

Adolph Spiess, a little later in the early part of the nineteenth century, became the pioneer in the development of school gymnastics. He also as a musician adapted musical accompaniments to gymnastic movements. His material was systematically arranged, but it neglected some essential requirements of physical education.

P. H. Ling (1776-1839) led in the development of the Swedish gymnastics which resulted in the most precise system of movements and exercises which the world has known. This system was elaborated to meet the needs of human nature in what Ling and his followers considered to be "its fallen and dilapidated state." In their interpretation of physiological principles, which seems today lacking in many vital elements, gymnastic movements were elaborated to meet needs which were expressed as "military, pedagogical, medical, and aesthetic."

In several countries in Europe outside of Sweden, and in parts of the United States, Swedish gymnastics have gained as prominent a place in the schools as has the so-called German system or any other method. All the divisions of gymnastics according to Ling tend to bring about unity.

Pedagogical gymnastics develop the *minute endowment* to unity among the parts of the organism. . . . In military gymnastics the unity is sought between the body and the weapon in relation to the expression of antagonist. . . . By means of medical gymnastics, one seeks to restore unity between parts which has been lost through their abnormal conditions. . . . Through aesthetic gymnastics, the subject expresses the unity which exists between the mental and bodily being. . . . Therefore, all the principal divisions have a mutual interdependence, and gymnastics, in which no regard is paid for the unity which should exist in and among these parts, have no laws but are simply based on whim or fashion.

The Swedish system required a degree of exactness in movement beyond anything demanded by other methods, and the principles of activity as outlined by the Swedes are considered by many to be structural rather than functional in spirit, lacking in many of the

important qualities demanded by our present-day physiology and psychology.

The outdoor sports of England and her colonies represent more than any other national movement in physical education, the expression of the play instinct, and present in striking variety and range of recreative elements a great programme of games and sports which has been an essential factor in the development of a great world power, for a long time the foremost among the nations. The English sports have had a prominent place in the life and physical education of our own country.

In the progress of physical education in the United States, two distinctive influences have arisen in this country. Dio Lewis (1861) introduced rather widely to popular use free gymnastics performed with music, and exercises with dumb-bells, wands, and other forms of hand apparatus. Sargent, more recently, as a phase of his support of physical education, has elaborated the system of developing appliances by means of pulley-weights, in which, by means of graded weights, measured resistance is given to definitely localized muscular movements. The attention which just now is being given to play, games, and swimming, as well as the revival of folk and national dancing, represents additional features and indicates the wide range and confusing variety of the manifold elements related to physical education.

All of the various materials and influences enumerated, from Greek onward, have entered into the relatively brief development of physical education in this country, and are all at the present time in use, though fortunately not in any single institution, nor in collective effect upon a single pupil or group. According to the prominence of national, political, or personal influence in school or community, certain ideas obtain control for the time in this as in other aspects of education.

There is at present, therefore, throughout this cosmopolitan country great diversity of opinion with reference to controlling ideas in physical education and complete lack of agreement regarding material and methods of instruction. This is inevitable and probably salutary, as opportunity is thus given for free experimentation and for local adoption of ways and means for recognized aims.

It is apparent to many, however, that physical education, more

particularly in the public-school system of this country, has on the whole lacked the support of a well-organized body of thought which is in harmony with the best current educational theory. To many, again, it is evident further that the principles of physical education, even as formulated, have not kept pace with general educational progress.

Several reasons may help to explain this condition of affairs. Not until the last few years has there been a practical recognition of the broader social scope of education with the implied obligations to the physical and social, as well as the intellectual and moral needs of the pupil. Beyond this, it is but recently that modern psychology and physiology have proclaimed the scientific facts which have shown the more vital and intimate interdependence between the different aspects of life, which are called physical, intellectual, and moral.

Up to the present time general educators have given little attention to the study of physical education. Such study, when undertaken, has stopped with the external details of school management; has been superficial as a rule; and has failed to penetrate to the intrinsic and vital phases of the problem.

On the other hand, the great majority of the physical educators have been ignorant of the general principles and tendencies of education. They have been trained narrowly, to think of and deal with physical education much as a detached problem, and too largely on the materialistic physical plane. This tendency to an unrelated specialization is not confined to physical education, but is perhaps aggravated here, inasmuch as a considerable part of the impetus in the development of this field has come through agencies outside of those directly educational. It has been unfortunate, also, in some respects at least, that so many of the teachers of physical education throughout the country have received their professional training in special normal schools, away from students in other departments of teaching, and outside the atmosphere of general education.

It is the business of physical educators, in co-operation with the agencies which should provide for hygienic care, to secure for the pupil, through a rational distribution of motor activities, certain health values represented by favorable posture, organic vigor, and other desirable biologic qualities. If necessary, these health quali-

ties must constitute the main goal in this field, but it is most desirable that physical education should occupy itself with a programme of activities for the young which would secure these physical aspects of health without fail, as by-products, as it were, while the pupil is being guided in the doing of things which will result in the acquirement of mental, moral, and social benefits. Health, then, in the narrower sense, becomes an essential means or condition in physical education to the accomplishment of certain exceedingly valuable results in the general education of the child.

It is unfortunate that the physical and muscular aspects of health occupy so large a part of the horizon of the physical educator.

The new asceticism must assert the value and duty of exercise, but it has only contempt for the ludicrous cult of muscle which is one of the follies of the age. . . .

We must remember, what is so constantly forgotten, that vitality and muscularity are not one and the same thing.¹

Physical education is much more a matter of the nervous system than of the muscles. It should be considered more a qualitative than a quantitative affair.

Physical education is for the sake of mental and moral culture and not an end in itself. It is to make the intellect, feelings, and will more vigorous, sane, supple and resourceful. It should make for control and keep the body under and make it a servant and not a master. Practical ethics of body and soul is the core of all. . . . The psychologizing of athleticism is now its crying need. The ordinary medical side is not enough. . . . The history and psycho-physiology of military drill, dancing, the great national sports and games and their effects are needed.²

Physical education today, then, is too much occupied in:

a) Seeking certain postural and corrective results which are not after all satisfactorily obtained in class exercise by formal movements involving the consciousness of muscle and body by the pupil. These results, except as obtained in individual cases by remedial gymnastics, may be gained, in the main, as well or better through exercises which are more natural, spontaneous and enjoyable;

¹ Saleeby, *Health, Strength, and Happiness*, pp. 17, 101.

² G. S. Hall, *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1908), p. 1015.

b) Training the body too much within itself, and without sufficient regard for the attitude of the mind and for the indirect effects of exercise upon disposition and personality;

c) Developing various forms of ability which are not, in identity, similarity, or analogy, closely enough related to the interests and activities of human life to justify the time and effort given to them.

Physical education has not yet an integral place in the educational theory and programme of the country. It has been given certain space and time, and often grudging recognition in response to the hygienic demands (usually the protests of the physicians) in the effort to counteract, or to compensate for, the unhealthful influences of school life.

Physical education has had, however, not nominally perhaps, and not always adequately, but in effect, a very logical place in the kindergarten. Its position in the curriculum of the school above the kindergarten has been more uncertain. The petition of the physical educator is very commonly for more time in the curriculum. There is suspicion in the minds of some that the proffered material of physical education has frequently not been of a character to rationally compel the recognition asked. When physical education presents a programme which is psychologically and physiologically sound, and therefore, pedagogically acceptable, it will find itself in organic relationship with education as a whole and to the other subjects or departments represented.

Physical education should provide, in instruction and supervision, for the desirable margin of motor activity which is not otherwise supplied in the school curriculum or in the life of the pupil outside of the school.

The main function of education, perhaps, is to train the human mechanism toward efficiency as an instrument of self-expression, with reference to the various opportunities and responsibilities of life, at the time and later. The child learns far more of permanent value through what he does—and this always means neuro-muscular action of some sort—than through what he sees or hears or perceives in any way directly with the five senses. In fact, perception of sensation depends on some degree of activity. Motor sensation is the great cornerstone in the foundation of human education. The experience of a Helen Keller demonstrates how much can be

accomplished in education without sight and hearing if the main avenues of sensation from movement are left open.

The psychologists maintain that action even is necessary to the complete consciousness of sensation.

The unity in the reference of the sensation comes in on the side of the act. . . . It is not likely there can be any well-defined consciousness of the respective sensations, as such, except as they become co-ordinated in single activities and are made to serve definite functions in the carrying out of the activity. . . .

Consciousness grows in definiteness of reference and content as activity becomes more and more complex. Every emotion presupposes a definite organization and co-ordination of previous activities. The so-called attitudes of powers of mind, are simply differentiations of consciousness with reference to the need of action. The mental attitudes of all mature minds are strictly co-ordinate with the complexity of activity of which they are capable.*

The psychology of movements performed on the gymnasium floor or in the playground involves the same principles and elements as those belonging to classroom, laboratory, and studio, and in a particular case the former may involve a richer content and more important result than the latter. If the motor training and experience of the child are complete or satisfactory, even from the broader psychological standpoint, then, so far as muscular activity and exercise can secure these results, the child, as a rule, will have favorable posture and physique; organic health and vigor; facility and efficiency in action; aptitude and power for the tasks which may reasonably be demanded during a life career.

The determination of the scope and content of this entire range of motor activities, must always be a provisional one in relation to the typical or individual child, subject to revision as circumstances may dictate. The determination of the margin of motor action which belongs to physical education will depend upon the answer given to the general problem, and upon the breadth and variety of motor training demanded by the "humanistic, scientific and industrial" aspects of the newer education. This margin will vary with the varying course of study in different schools and sections of the country. The more completely the rational and liberal school curriculum may provide even incidentally for the physical education

* King, *Psychology of Child Development*.

needs of the pupil the better it will be for the child. Recent progress in education shows a marked increase in the larger motor elements adopted in the regular work of the school in connection with manual training, nature-study, school excursions, school festivals, and the like.

The physical education margin, in providing supplementary training, will naturally deal with the large, more primitive, and more fundamental forms of action. It should always strive to secure and maintain the basic "fundamental" power upon which the more "accessory" elements involved in the curriculum may safely rest. At times it should concern itself with the supports and buttresses of this superstructure in the attempt to preserve stability and equilibrium. This idea is better expressed in terms of function as it is related to the balancing of the programme of the pupil by providing for recreation, change of activity—keeping the center of gravity in the right place while all the time some of the most vital and larger values in education are industriously pursued by the teacher.

The subject-matter of physical education is found in play, games, dancing, swimming, outdoor sports, athletics, and gymnastics (reconstructed to satisfy educational needs). These headings are not mutually exclusive but are used to cover the range of activities.

The content of the physical education margin may seem less serious and dignified to some than the study of the humanities, science, or industry, but it may at any particular time, and in the long run, be as important as any or all of them, and much more so, oftentimes, for the individual. Further be it stated, that the more technical and specialized forms of ability in education depend very vitally for present and future well-being upon all that is logical and justified in physical education.

This proposed programme looks to the process of human evolution for general guidance concerning a part of the method to be pursued. Primitive men, our ancestors more or less remote, became strong and healthy; developed physical and moral powers through play in childhood and by doing very real things in hunting and fishing, in agriculture, in war, in industry, in commerce, in supplying human needs; but always in immediate unconsciousness of self, without understanding what went on in muscle and nerve. They were expressing ideas clamoring for utterance, or engaged in

accomplishing tasks with concrete and absorbing goals in actual or in mental view. Children and young people must do things today, not necessarily identified in type and purpose with those of primitive life, but in the same general spirit and manner if the method is to be effective and the results satisfactory.

Certain conditions seem necessary for rational exercise in physical education if the best results are to be obtained.

I. The activities of physical education should be carried on out of doors, whenever this may be made possible. The gymnasium should be considered an emergency-space, valuable to be sure, when required by inclement weather and under other circumstances; but it should never interfere with possible use of nature's infinitely better playground out of doors.

II. The exercises should be natural in type, satisfying by their execution the play instinct and the fundamental powers and faculties as they develop, with due regard to the ancestral habits of activity and to the future practical needs of the individual.

Not every possible action of voluntary muscles and nerves is desirable in education by any means, even though this action may strengthen muscle and nerve structure, develop exact control and enhanced power of co-ordination, and bring results which seem to fulfil the conditions of improvement. We are learning by practical experience, and through the teachings of the newer psychology which aims to interpret this experience, that true culture of the highest type depends upon gaining faculty and power through the doing of things which correspond in type and quality, in the main motives and reactions, to the worthy deeds of the race and more particularly to the actual work and conduct of humanity today.

Education, whether in physical training or other branches, should secure to the pupil, beyond mere bread-and-butter needs, the ability to meet the wider opportunities and the possible emergencies in life; but the performance of tasks requiring primarily subjective control of action, and aimed too directly (and by a short cut) at benefit to bodily health or mental faculty, may not only fail to accomplish its direct purpose, but also fall short of the intended indirect benefit to other faculties and powers. There are many "fancy stunts," as well as exact and intricate performances in various branches of education which lack rational sanction from modern educational

theory. In the past they have been considered extremely valuable, not only because they were showy, but for drill and discipline. They are dropping very rapidly out of use in relation to reading, spelling, writing, manual training, and most of the departments of teaching.

Formal gymnastics, free-hand movements, for the most part, and much of the apparatus work of the gymnasium, belong to the category of artificial "stunts," mechanical movements; lacking the purpose, mental content, and objective which are essential to sensible educational performances. Most of the free-hand exercises, particularly, are mechanically rigid, jerky, and awkward, as compared with natural, useful movements of the body. They are uninteresting and distasteful to most boys and girls except in the early elementary grades, when they are considered by the physical educator even relatively less important.

Formal gymnastics in physical education correspond to drugs in medical practice. The movement in medical treatment even is away from the use of drugs. In a similar way progress in physical education must be away from all formal, artificial kinds of movement.

It is important that a reasonable amount of physical education should be required of every pupil and student in school and college. It is correlatively important that this training should enlist the interest and enthusiasm of each pupil, not primarily in keeping healthy, but in the doing of things, having intrinsic objective interest, whose performance will insure good health. Much of the required physical education at present cultivates a dislike for healthful exercise. This is inexpressibly unfortunate, and forms an indictment against such instruction in as much as one of the most important purposes of physical education should be to cultivate the liking for rational, pleasurable, healthful exercise.

III. In physical education, as in other branches, the pupils in practice should either: (a) express an idea, feeling, or emotion, which seems worth expressing, e. g., in dancing, pantomime, or other form of dramatic representation, or (b) there should be some definite objective aim or effect to be attained as the result of the muscular effort performed, as in maintenance of squad formation in marching, hitting a ball, throwing a ball into a basket, swimming to a given point, out-running a competitor, or any one of the indefinite number of things to do in games.

Given a rational observance of sanitary and hygienic practice in the schoolroom and a fair amount of time for play and recreation in fundamental motor training, and all the desirable qualities of health in structure and function of the body will accrue to the child without the artificial movements already referred to, except in individual cases (which will be fewer as education becomes more hygienic) where the most exact and accurately applied movements should be used like medicine to correct individual weaknesses and tendencies.

IV. The activities in physical education should be correlated whenever feasible with the subjects and activities with which the child is occupied elsewhere in the school or outside. Games vary with the season of the year, with climate and weather changes. There are many opportunities in connection with study of literature, history, nature-study, art, industry, and other subjects, to employ dances and games which have definite relation to the subjects in hand and give the child a most valuable opportunity to express himself more completely in relation to the interest which occupies his attention. It seems important for many reasons that the more accessory, specialized, symbolic modes of expression in education should be reinforced and broadened by the larger and vital forms of action which physical education may, and should, provide.

Folk dances may be correlated with seasonal interests and festivals, e. g., harvest time, Christmas celebration, patriotic anniversaries, May Day, etc. The development of the festival idea in relation to school work seems to have many valuable possibilities if the festivals can be utilized in a way to improve the desired general resultant of school work and not interfere with the attainment of recognized ends. The school festival as a rule, wins the enthusiasm of pupils. It affords opportunity for genuine correlation of literature, history, music, fine and industrial arts, and physical education; if physical education is ready to provide live material in dancing, marching, pantomime, and games.

To utilize the opportunities for correlation it is necessary that the teacher or supervisor of physical education be acquainted with the curriculum and the work of the school as a whole.

V. Gymnastic technique (as distinguished from marching, dancing, games, athletics), when used under the head of formal gym-

nastics or other titles, should consist in the practice of movements involved in actual and natural kinds of performance, or closely related in form to such movements, for the purpose of acquiring greater strength and skill, so that the complete action or original performance may be more effectively executed. Such technical practice is ordinarily better performed through individual exercise, as a musician practices on the instrument, or a singer practices with the voice. It is possible, however, to practice advantageously some of the large movements involved in dancing and games in class instruction. Children in the elementary grades even may devise movements and construct gymnastic drills which will satisfy the psychologic demands of such drills, and incidentally give desirable physiological results; e. g., a third-grade class constructed a gymnastic drill which was designed to improve ability in rope-climbing. This drill naturally lacked the mechanical precision of Swedish gymnastics but it possessed enough value of another kind to more than make up for what was lost.

VI. The pupil, while intent upon some external result in individual or co-operative effort, should be unconscious of his own body or of the purpose of exercise to benefit his body or health.

Self-consciousness, self-analysis of the mind or body in education, except as incidentally required in the direct effort to attain an external end in a more effective way, must always detract from the best results, whether measured in terms of bodily health, or skill in action; the actual products of effort expended, or the indirect effects of education.

VII. Mechanical uniformity and precision of movement, in a group or class of children, can logically be demanded, not primarily or simply because the teacher asks for, or orders it, or because it appears better to the spectator, but only when the situation, expressed as an external problem, requires it. Evolutions in marching, and sometimes dancing, necessitate precise uniformity in movement among smaller or larger numbers of actors, and these evolutions must be changed by word of command of teacher, officer, or leader. In general, however, it is most desirable that mechanical uniformity should not be demanded, but that, with the observance of certain general principles of action, the pupil should be left free to express individuality in action. Uniformity and precision in gymnastics,

persisting from the old military régime in physical education, particularly, have come to be fetishes, and in the effort to secure them, important values have often been neglected.

It is significant and illogical that the gymnasium is practically the only place in school where uniformity in action is expected of all pupils in a grade. In the future, gymnastic technique must be reconstructed in relation to real conduct in life, to meet psychic and functional needs rather than the mechanical anatomic standard of precision which prevails so largely at present.

VIII. Physical education should be supervised and directed with reference to the beneficial social and moral results which may be gained by the right performance, in play, games, and athletics, of the large fundamental types of human action.

It is because the brain is developed, while the muscles are allowed to grow flabby and atrophied, that the deplored chasm between knowing and doing is so often fatal to the practical effectiveness of mental and moral culture. . . . The trouble is that few realize what physical vigor is in man or woman, or how dangerously near weakness often is to wickedness, how impossible healthful energy of will is without strong muscles which are its organ, or how endurance and self-control, no less than great achievement, depend on muscle habits.⁴

Spinoza makes the pregnant remark that we do not know what Body is capable of. We may go a step farther and, following Aristotle, declare that we shall never know, till Body finds its true function as instrument of fully developed soul. For materialism consists, not in frankest recognition of matter, but in the assignment to it of a spurious supremacy or independence. There can be no materialism in utmost emphasis upon physical education, so long as "Body for the sake of Soul" is as it was with Plato, the presiding principle of educational action.⁵

Very little profitable instruction in theoretical ethics can be given in the elementary or even in the high school. Children and youth get most of their moral instruction in relation to action, and many important ethical principles may be instilled in connection with the large primitive types of conduct involved in personal health problems and in games and sports. The playground, gymnasium, and athletic field afford the best opportunities for the learning of moral lessons,

⁴ G. Stanley Hall, "Moral Education and Will-Training," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. II, 1892.

⁵ MacCunn, *The Making of Character*, p. 59.

sometimes even by college students. The president of a great university said a few years ago, "The instructor of physical education has a more powerful influence upon the morale of students than the teacher of any other subject." It is most important then (1) that this teacher should have an adequate appreciation of the moral influence that should be exerted, and (2) have personality, character, and tact to exert such influence wisely and effectively.

IX. In the fifth or sixth elementary (or the first or second grammar) grades when some of the girls enter the pre-adolescent period of greatly accelerated bodily growth, boys and girls should have the more vigorous games and exercises in separate classes, and from that time onward in their physical education the forms of exercise should be adapted to sex differences as well as to advancing age and personal needs.

X. While in physical education certain psychic, social, and ethical results should be directly sought, the forms of exercise should always be arranged and controlled so that favorable physiologic values may be obtained. In other words, physical education should always be hygienic in the highest degree. More than this, physical education must not only be hygienic for the typical pupil of any particular age, but it must be safe and hygienic for each individual pupil. This can only be accomplished on the basis of knowledge of the health condition of each pupil. Many students, both boys and girls, in our schools have been injured, and are being injured, by participation in games and exercises which are too severe for them, with their individual health weaknesses and limitations. The health inspection, advocated earlier in this report, provides an intelligent basis for the individual adjustment of exercise.

Some of the faults of the present methods of physical education are indicated by implication under the previous headings.

Brief reference is now made to certain common and very practical errors in present physical education teaching which have a direct bearing on health—

a) It is an error to teach pupils to "toe-out" in the gymnasium or on the drill ground, in standing, marching, running, and dancing. Turning out the toes tends to weaken the foot—to produce "flat foot." The "straight-foot" position with the feet parallel (not

necessarily together), or with toes only slightly turned out, is the best position.

b) There is too much stamping in gymnastic practice. The ball and heel of the foot should never strike the floor at the same instant. If this occurs the foot ligaments are often strained and this may weaken the arch of the foot. In dancing, running, jumping, and in stepping or changing position in any way, the ball of the foot should always strike the floor first. Jarring of the body should be reduced to a minimum. There is too much emphasis in gymnastics upon downward movements with arms, legs, and body, and not enough effort to lift up and hold up the entire body against the force of gravity.

c) No gymnastic movements taken when the pupil is standing should require backward bending of the spine except as this occurs unconsciously and to a slight degree when the very laudable effort is made to lift or hold the chest up and forward.

d) There is a frequent tendency to teach girls and young women gymnastics, with and without apparatus, which are too strenuous and heavy for them. Girls should be trained in the gymnasium how to land lightly on the toes; how to come down a rope from a moderate height; how to get off a street car properly; how to swim if there is opportunity for such instruction; but jumping, and swinging by the arms, should be controlled and limited carefully for adolescent girls and young women. The subject-matter of physical education needs revision in relation to the requirements of girls and women.

e) Too often the teacher of physical education, intent upon the conduct of class or group as a whole, is not sufficiently aware of the individual, and as a result one or more pupils may exercise beyond the point of reasonable fatigue, or in some way prejudicial to personal well-being.

SOME FORMS OF EXERCISE IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The fundamental impulse or motive to be considered in physical education is play. Those students who study play most carefully give it most serious consideration with reference to its possibilities in the life and education of the child. The more strenuous and intellectual modern life becomes, the more important it appears to be

to cultivate the spirit and to provide the chance to play for child and adult. The theories of play are not altogether in agreement, but whether one believes in the Spencer-Schiller theory that play is due to the effort of surplus energy to express itself, or in imitation or recapitulation theories, or in the Groos theory of instinct, all may agree that the young of animals exhibit the play instinct and that the human child has his full share of it.

The distinction between play and work for the child is not very definite for some wise people believe that the more like play the child makes his serious tasks, the more benefit he will derive from them. So in physical education it is most desirable that the child should have opportunity and guidance for the doing of those large activities which will keep him vigorous and robust, which will develop alertness, self-control, with the other desirable qualities, and all in the spirit of joyous, free, exultant movement.

It may be justly claimed that the child gains more educationally, in the first eight or ten years of his life and lays a surer foundation for the mental and physical health of after life through vigorous, unrestricted physical activity than through any other factor whatsoever. By this I mean spontaneous play under favorable conditions, with accompanying fresh air, sunshine and good food, supplemented and enriched by gymnastics and athletics, including swimming. I do not mean that nervously exhausting and deadening drill known as the Swedish gymnastics, which, in the name of educational gymnastics, adds fatigue to fatigue by taking the initiative away from the child and forcing him to pay constant and close attention to the orders of the teacher, that he may execute with precision entirely uninteresting and conventional movements.⁶

The plays and games of childhood present ever-varying conditions, constituting both mental and physical problems of the highest educational value. The child is habituated to make rapid judgments in the face of changing conditions. He must be constantly on the alert, must perceive conditions as they are, must immediately adapt his own action to their quick-changing relations, and, as a result, he gains the perfect control of his body which serves him throughout life. As teachers, we must recognize that the judgments upon which all these active movements are based are intellectual operations. In play the child is the unit of force; he initiates his own conditions. His limitations are self-imposed. His self-control lies in execution

⁶ G. W. Fitz, "Hygiene of Instruction," *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1898).

rather than in inhibition. He is concerned with self-expression rather than with self-repression. Play thus relates itself to the truest conception of education, the development of the power of the individual to act as a self-directed unit in the community.⁷

In the large social problem of providing for play, the playground becomes the primary and essential factor in making play reasonably possible. The gymnasium, schoolroom, nursery, or other inclosed space should be considered an adjunct to the playground. As the little child gets older the play impulse expresses itself more satisfactorily in games; simple at first, and later more highly organized. From the almost unlimited range of game material at present available, certain lists are here suggested as adaptable to the different grades in school, and to boys and girls when games and exercises should be adapted to their separate needs.

Two general classes of games are used very largely on the playground or in the gymnasium: (a) the "dramatic game" which is characterized by the expression in movement of the child's ideas, without reference to any objective end: e. g., pantomime, dancing, and singing games; (b) the game of skill in which the effort to accomplish some definite external result involves skilled action with varying degrees of physical strength and endurance: e. g., ball games and those requiring forms of marksmanship.

While many games require only the independent action of the individual player, there are a large number, on the other hand, which depend for success upon co-operative group action, upon "team work." Each type of games has its own peculiar advantages and is adapted to certain ages and classes of children.

The dramatic game is most acceptable and useful to children in the kindergarten and the first two elementary grades.

The games which prominently involve individual power and competition are best suited to children from eight to twelve years of age. The group and co-operative elements in games are valuable features for pupils in the later grammar grades and high school, and also, of course, for college students. During the period of adolescence the dramatic and individual elements are not eliminated but they lose their relative prominence as the social and co-operative qualities become more pronounced.

⁷ "Play as a Factor in Development," *American Physical Education Review*, December, 1897.

Many games may be played with enthusiasm in all of the first five or six elementary grades, but the game under the same name will develop in complexity and difficulty as the children grow older and gain interest in increasing ability and technical skill.

GAMES SUGGESTED FOR SCHOOL USE

Grade I

Running games—

Drop the Handkerchief.

Cat and Mouse

"Come Follow Me"

Cat and Mice

Garden Scamp

"I Saw"

The Boiler Burst

Follow the Leader

Claps

Dramatic games (constructed by class), as—

Train games

Fire-engine games

Fairy game

Squirrel game, etc.

Singing Games, as—

Swinging Song—A. L. Stevenson

Folk Games and Dances—C. Crawford

Swedish Song Plays—Bolin

Singing Games—Eleanor Willard

GRADE II

Drop the Handkerchief

Cat and Mouse

Cat and Mice

"Come Follow Me"

"Have You Seen My Sheep?"

Garden Scamp

"I Saw"

The Boiler Burst

Follow the Leader

Claps

Black Man

Single Relay Races—simple form—individual against individual—score by points.

Folk games, as "Shoemaker"

GRADE III

Drop the Handkerchief
 Cat and Mouse
 Herr Slap Jack
 "Have You Seen My Sheep?"
 French Blind Man's Buff
 Blind Man's Buff with wand
 Steps
 Sheepfold
 The Boiler Burst
 Wolf and Shepherdess (or Fox and Geese)
 Follow the Leader
 Claps
 Tommy Tiddler's Ground (Kingsland)
 Stealing Sticks
 Black Man
 Single Relays

GRADE IV

Cat and Mouse
 Herr Slap Jack
 "Have You Seen My Sheep?"
 French Blind Man's Buff
 Blind Man's Buff with wand
 Steps
 Bull in the Ring
 Sheepfold
 The Boiler Burst
 House Hiring
 Wolf and Shepherdess (or Fox and Geese)
 Follow the Leader
 Clap's
 Tommy Tiddler's Ground (Kingsland)
 Stealing Sticks
 Tame Fox
 Hill Drill (or Pom-pom, Pull away)
 Bound Hands
 Black Man
 Circle Tag
 Three Deep
 Relays (use of obstacles)

GRADE V

Cat and Mouse
Herr Slap Jack
"Have You Seen My Sheep?"
French Blind Man's Buff
Blind Man's Buff with wand
Steps
Bull in the Ring
Sheepfold
The Boiler Burst
House Hiring
Wolf and Shepherdess (or Fox and Geese)
Follow the Leader
Claps
Tommy Tiddler's Ground (Kingsland)
Stealing Sticks
Tame Fox
Hill Drill (or Pom-pom, Pull away)
Bound Hands
Black Man
Line Tag
Circle Tag
Three Deep
Relays { Single } with obstacles
 { Double }
"All Up"
Duck on the Rock

DEVELOPMENT OF THE BALL GAME (THROUGH FIRST FIVE GRADES)

I. *Rolling Ball Games*

- a) Children roll ball from one to another.
- b) Roll with aim. Teacher in center of circle rolls ball to each child who then returns it.
- c) French ball—one child in center of circle. Children attempt to roll ball from one to another across circle without having it caught by child in center, for if he catches it the player who touched it last must take the center place.

II. *Bouncing Ball Games*

- a) Individual child practices bouncing ball and catching it.
- b) Teacher in center bounces ball to each child who returns it in the same way.

- c) Individual child practices throwing ball up and catching it on bounce.
- d) One child in center of circle calls name of some other child and tosses ball in air. Child called must catch ball on one bounce.
- e) Tossing ball up and catching without bounce.
- f) (d) may be played without letting ball bounce.
- g) Battle ball.

III. *Throwing or Passing Ball*

- a) Teacher in center throws ball to each child who throws to her.
- b) Touch ball may be played passing ball (instead of rolling).
- c) Teacher (or Leader).
- d) Dodge ball (moving goal).
- e) Zigzag.
- f) Battle ball (throwing ball).
- g) Puss ball.
- h) Medicine ball.
- i) Stride ball.
- j) Toss ball (overhead), relay.
- k) Newcomb.
- l) German bat ball.

ATHLETICS AND GAMES (FIFTH, SIXTH, AND SEVENTH GRADES)

Games in which the *individual* is alone concerned

Boys	Girls
Swimming	Swimming
Skating—ice and roller	Skating—ice and roller
Jumping	Running
Running	Archery
Fungos—batting flies	Battledoor and shuttlecock
Archery	Diabolo
Battledoor and shuttlecock	Rowing
Diabolo	Canoeing
Rowing	Tether ball
Canoeing	
Tether ball	

Group Games and Contests in which the *individual* is most prominent

Boys	Girls
<i>Games of Tag</i>	<i>Games of Tag</i>
1. Cross tag	1. Cross tag
2. Pull away	2. Pull away
3. Hang	3. Hang
4. Prisoner's base, etc.	4. Prisoner's base, etc.

Boys	Girls
<i>Relay Races</i>	<i>Relay Races</i>
Running	Running
Indian clubs	Indian clubs
Wrestling	
<i>Ball Games</i>	<i>Ball Games</i>
Screen ball	Center ball
Curtain ball	Curtain ball
Center ball	Dodge ball
Dodge ball	Stride ball
Stride ball	Zigzag ball, etc.
Zigzag ball, etc.	
Circle rope jumping	Circle rope jumping
Tennis	Tennis
Leapfrog	Leapfrog
Handball	Handball
Giant stride	Giant stride
Croquet	Croquet
Cross country <i>walks</i>	Cross country <i>walks</i>
Gardening, Nature-study	Gardening, Nature-study
Track and field events	

Events in which *Team Work* gradually becomes the essential feature

Boys	Girls
Baseball	Indoor baseball
Basket-ball	Basket-ball
Field hockey	Field hockey
Socker football	Cricket
Cricket	

ATHLETICS AND GAMES

High School

(In addition to preceding)

Boys	Girls
Baseball	Indoor baseball
Basket-ball	Basket-ball (girls' rules)
Field hockey	Field hockey
Ice hockey	Cricket
Cricket	Handball
LaCrosse	Swimming and diving
Socker football	50-yard dash
Rugby football	Hurdles
American football	Canoeing and rowing
Handball	Tennis
Swimming and diving	Billiards

Boys	Girls
Boxing	Golf
Track and field athletics	Bowling
Squash	
Canoeing and rowing	
Tennis	
Billiards	
Golf	
Bowling	

Basket-ball under proper restrictions is an admirable winter indoor game for both boys and girls. The rules of the game should be modified for the girls, as is the case in some schools. Girls should be protected by the rules from too violent jolting and jostling of the body and from covering in play more than one-third of the regulation floor area. For boys the rules of the Amateur Athletic Union should be used as these provide better than the present inter-collegiate rules, for a limitation of undesirable features of play.

FOOTBALL

The value of football in the training of high-school boys, especially those of the large centers of population, is well recognized. No other game now played brings out so well the qualities of manliness, courage, daring; the willingness to sacrifice and subordinate self for the good of the whole; alertness; the ability to co-operate with others; quickness of judgment, and determination. Yet the sacrifice of twenty-nine lives and numerous serious accidents in one season all testify to the necessity of a radical reform, if the game is still to be played by the American boy.

It is comparatively easy to point out what ends or results are to be sought in the reorganization of the game, but exceedingly difficult to formulate the specific rules that will bring about the desired effects. Change must be made in the manner in which the game is supervised as well as in the actual playing rules.

Examples

1. The physical director of a prominent preparatory school stated, when between halves it was suggested that one of his "backs" was "all in," that he had given him two ounces of whiskey.

2. The coach of a prominent military academy is said to run what might be called a book-making establishment in which he urges his players to bet on the games.

3. One boy died of strychnine poisoning as a result of a hypodermic injection between halves (reported in newspaper).

Certain changes in football are evidently desirable while others have been suggested.

1. The rules provide for 35-minute halves which may be shortened by agreement between the two captains. Rarely is the full length of halves played, yet it would be better to put the maximum length at 15 or 20 minutes. After this length of time it becomes a matter of endurance and brute strength rather than skill.

2. Some regulation is necessary which will require the removal of a player who is manifestly in no condition to play. Not infrequently a player with slight concussion of the brain is allowed to continue in play. Possibly a rule necessitating the removal of a player, who asked or required time to be taken out for him, would meet this need. It is usually the player who has been repeatedly injured that at last receives the "fatal blow" (commonly reported in papers).

3. Modification of rules (now under discussion) so as to (a) protect the player better from injury; (b) do away with mass plays; (c) make game more open and provide for more free play.

It is most desirable that rules of play should be so devised that all the range of valuable qualities would be increased to the maximum while the elements of danger should be reduced to a minimum, if they cannot be eliminated.

TRACK AND FIELD ATHLETICS FOR HIGH SCHOOL BOYS

Track events of college athletics should be carefully controlled. Many high-school boys are injured for months, years, or for life by taking part in endurance races. There is no possible benefit from the long races to compensate for the harm that may result. High-school boys should not take part in races longer than 100 or 120 yards.

Hammer-throwing contest and tug of war should not be allowed. In shot-putting, the weight of shot should be limited to 8 or 12 pounds. Field athletics are suitable for boys, such as pole-vault, and long and high jumping on soft ground.

ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS

The typical outdoor athletic contests are not suitable for girls. Running races above 75 yards in length are distinctly objectionable.

Jumping should be very carefully controlled and should generally be restricted for adolescent girls. The developing reproductive organs, at this age, are easily subject to displacement. Many girls and young women have been seriously and permanently injured, in ways entirely avoidable, by participation in exercises too violent and taxing. Exercises for girls and women should be intelligently selected and adapted to their peculiar conditions and needs. With proper regulations, however, group games and contests are exceedingly valuable for girls.

Women, certainly as much as men, need to learn through practical experience the rules of fair play, generous treatment of rivals and opponents, merging of self in co-operative effort, concentration of power, and the bending of all energies toward an impersonal objective goal. A woman of direct experience and keen discernment has stated suggestive opinions regarding this phase of physical education in the following words:

There is no training which girls so much need as that which develops a sense of honor and loyalty to each other, and games will do more to really make these living qualities than the ethical systems taught in a college curriculum. It takes the finest kind of courage to be fair, to be honest, and to be loyal, and these are absolutely essential in good team work.

We may think that little vanities and jealousies and little unkind words or somewhat exaggerated statements have little harm in themselves; that bragging and snobbishness are perhaps pardonable under some conditions. Games try out these qualities and they appear in their exact proportion and in all their ugliness, devoid of the graces in which they are so often half hidden. A game is a well-nigh perfect democracy. Nothing is so good for the girl as to find that money, clothes, family, prestige, or "pull" are as nothing—that they do not help her to play good ball or make a team. She stands or falls absolutely by what she is and can do, and realizes that the game makes all equal, and that she may have to shake hands with a despised social rival on the field.

Some women are abnormally sensitive and introspective or morbid and live too much on the subjective side of life. The various ethical and religious cults which appeal primarily to the subjective self appeal largely to women. Sports are primarily objective, they afford no opportunity for analysis of feeling or consciousness of the process. The thought is upon the things to be done and not upon the doer. Every institution which provides opportunity for women's games is erecting a barrier against nervousness, morbidity and too much introspection.

The qualities which games develop are not essentially masculine, they are but human qualities needed for human fellowship, and I have yet to see a group of girls made masculine by holding these ideals before them, and where the spirit of the training is that which I have been trying to portray. I do not mean to say, of course, that every individual trait can be strengthened, every defect removed by game work, or that games alone can do this; but I do mean to say that organized sports for women, when put on a proper basis and under intelligent directors, will go a longer way toward training the faculties and moral instincts than many of the courses of instruction which are given the credit for doing this.^a

The management of group athletics for high-school girls is rendered difficult by the fact that the girl should not take part in a vigorous game during the menstrual period. At just this time, not infrequently, her participation is needed as a member of a team. To guard against such a difficulty it is important to have several substitutes properly trained, or if this provision cannot be made, the game, however important, should be delayed rather than to allow any girl to run the risk of harm. The above and other reasons support the proposition that interschool or interinstitution athletic contests for girls are not as a rule advisable. If allowed under exceptional conditions they should be supervised with great care. Interclass games within the school can be more safely administered.

Originality and ingenuity in adaptation of games for high-school and college girls will bring about great improvement in this field of physical education.

In one eastern college for women, by the construction of implements of suitable weight, enjoyable and beneficial contests have been devised: discus throwing (with 4-pound discus); stilt race—20 yards; torch race—20 yards; javelin throwing; hurdle race—30 yards.

SWIMMING

Swimming is a valuable form of exercise for boys and girls and an accomplishment attended with many beneficial results, not only in strength and grace of body, but also in self-control and confidence in one's ability to do things in unaccustomed surroundings. In connection with the ability to swim, it is most advantageous that

^a Kellor, *Ethical Value of Games for Women*.

every boy or girl, at least of high-school age, should be taught how to assist a disabled person in the water, and also to resuscitate a drowning person. Such training has very genuine mental and moral value and through it the emphasis upon the principle of mutual helpfulness exemplifies the idea of social interest which it is important that the young adolescent should get at an early stage. Swimming is a valuable feature in physical education. Recently a regulation has been put into effect in Boston requiring that all high-school girls as well as boys shall learn to swim.

DANCING

Dancing is considered by some authorities the best of all forms of exercise. A prominent nerve specialist has recently stated his belief that dancing is the most perfect of all exercises, particularly because of its beneficial effect upon the nervous system. It has come into prominence within the last few years through the revival of folk and national dancing in this country and Europe.

In the wealth of dance forms coming from many nations, and because the dance is related to so many different interests and kinds of expression, there are almost unlimited possibilities in the adaptation of dances to children of different ages. It is desirable that in the education of boys and girls dancing should not be solely a pleasurable form of movement, though this would often be worth while in itself, but when the dance is used as a form of expression of worthy ideas and feelings, through the correlation of art, music, history, and literature with the dance, its indirect value is widely extended without its hygienic and recreative benefits being in any way lost.

Through the selection and adaptation of types of dancing to the different stages of development and mental interest of children and youth, dancing may become a very prominent factor in the physical education of the young.

MARCHING

Marching of the traditional military type has been much used in the gymnasium. It is an excellent form of drill in precise movement, whose utility finds application in the orderly movement of pupils through school corridors and transit from room to room, and in the very practical and important fire drill. It has other useful

possibilities which have not yet been much developed. In evolutions and formations, more flexible and less rigid than the soldier type, much variety and interest may be added to these squad and class evolutions. The arrangement of geometric and art figures, of different designs, suggested in flag formations and the like, aided by the color effects of special costume, will indicate some of the modifications which may be suggested.

Physical education should utilize exercises which are natural, interesting, and enjoyable, and which, in unconscious fashion, accomplish the desired ends of this fundamental motor training.

CONCLUSIONS

I. That these different aspects of health care in education are vitally related to each other.

II. That the conditions affecting the child are so arranged that the responsibility for the health care of the pupil must be divided with varying distribution of duties between the following: parent, family physician, teacher, principal, school physician (sometimes school nurse), and teacher of physical education.

III. That there should be sympathetic and close co-operation between home and school forces for the conservation and improvement of the child's health.

IV. That all of the school officials, beginning with the teacher and principal or superintendent, must meet his or her full share of responsibility in relation to the health of pupils, if this work is to be well done.

V. That the desirable balance and unity of the five phases of school supervision and teaching which affect the pupils' health renders necessary beyond the service of teacher or principal a co-ordination of functions which should be centered in a supervisor of health or hygiene in the schools.

VI. That each state should have a supervisor of school hygiene; and each city of sufficient size, and each county in the rural districts, should have a local supervisor of school hygiene.

VII. That such a supervisor should have a broad and thorough general and technical training to perform his duties successfully.

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CONSTITUTION

(Revision proposed by the Executive Committee)

ART. I. *Name*.—The name of this Society shall be "National Society for the Study of Education."

ART. II. *Object*.—Its purpose is to carry on the investigation and to promote the discussion of educational problems.

ART. III. *Membership*.—Sec. 1. There shall be three classes of members, active, associate, and honorary.

Sec. 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this Society is eligible to active membership.

Sec. 3. Active members shall be entitled to hold office, to vote, and to participate in discussion.

Sec. 4. Associate members shall receive the publications of the Society and may attend its meetings, but shall not be entitled to hold office, to vote, nor to take part in discussion.

Sec. 5. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the payment of dues.

A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Society on nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 6. The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the *Yearbook*.

Sec. 7. The annual dues for active members shall be \$3.00, and for associate members \$1.00.

ART. IV. *Officers and Committees*.—Sec. I. The officers of this Society shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary-treasurer, an executive committee, and a board of trustees.

Sec. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of the president and four other members of the Society.

Sec. 3. The president and vice-president and secretary-treasurer shall serve for a term of one year. The other members of the Executive Committee shall serve for four years, one to be elected by the Society each year.

Sec. 4. The Executive Committee shall have general charge of the work of the Society, shall appoint the secretary-treasurer, and may, at its discretion, appoint an editor of the *Yearbook*.

Sec. 5. The Board of Trustees shall be elected by the Society for a term of three years, one to be elected each year.

The Board of Trustees shall be the custodian of the property of the Society, shall have power to make contracts, and shall audit all accounts of the Society and make an annual financial report.

Sec. 6. The method of electing officers shall be determined by the society.

ART. V. *Publications.*—The Society shall publish *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, and such supplements as the Executive Committee may provide for.

ART. VI. *Meetings.*—The Society shall hold its annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the Society or by the Executive Committee.

ART. VII. *Amendments.*—This Constitution may be amended at any annual meeting by a vote of two-thirds of voting members present.

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THE NINTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE NURSE IN EDUCATION

BY

THOMAS DENISON WOOD, A.M., M.D.

Professor of Physical Education, Teachers College and Columbia University, and Physician of the
Horace Mann School

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MARY L. READ, B.S.

SUPPLEMENT TO THE YEARBOOK ON "HEALTH AND EDUCATION" DISCUSSED AT
THE INDIANAPOLIS MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY

FEBRUARY 28, 1910

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PREFACE

The purpose in this second part of the *Ninth Yearbook* is to present a brief survey of the entrance into the work of public education of the professionally trained nurse; to bring together some of the important results already attained in this field; to indicate the scope and possibilities of the work of this educational nurse; to suggest the relationship of the nurse to the school and community, and to indicate the co-ordination of the nurse's work with that of parent, regular teacher, school physician, teacher of physical education, and other special teachers whose particular subjects bring them into relation with the health side of education. Valuable help and guidance have been given in the preparation of this report by Professor Henry Suzzallo.

INTRODUCTION

THOMAS D. WOOD

The most important of all the nation's resources is the health of the people.

The most valuable asset in this capital of national vitality is the health of the children.

The public school is the most effective agency of the nation for the conservation of child health and in the long run the school will become the most influential factor in the conservation of national health as a whole.

In the past the schools, even under most favorable circumstances, have been to some degree at least disadvantageous, and frequently directly dangerous to the health of children.

Some of the factors inseparable from present school conditions, notably the confinement of children in the schoolroom; and the segregation of pupils, with consequent communication and distribution of unrecognized infection, present health difficulties whose solution will tax all the resources which knowledge and money may render available.

The problems which have arisen out of the great health movement of the present day are many and varied. Many of the most important of these are related directly and indirectly to the work of public education. Some of these problems formulate themselves as follows:

a) What may the schools do to insure the best possible physical state of the pupil in order that he may be in the most favorable condition for the educational process?

b) How may all the school conditions in the environment, the implements and processes of education, be made salutary and healthful in their effects upon the pupil?

c) What materials and methods shall be utilized to inculcate in the child practical motives and habits of healthful living, and to provide instruction adequate for the present and future needs of the pupil in relation to conduct affecting the health of the individual, the home, the community, and the nation?

As in the history of public hygiene, so in the development of school

hygiene, the first step was to prevent and control the spread of communicable disease. To assist teacher and principal by providing professional skill for the problem; to co-ordinate the work of school hygiene and public health, provision has been made variously and in different places for the school physician or medical inspector.

This movement of medical inspection of schools has spread in desultory fashion through many of the larger and a few of the smaller cities throughout the country, without uniformity, but in a way to typify a method of organization suitable to a serious situation. However, between the essential limitations of the knowledge of teacher and principal on the one hand, and of the time of the school physician on the other, a striking and significant hiatus has arisen, so far as the vital needs of the child are concerned. To bridge this gap which the recent discoveries in medical science have made more striking and apparent within the last few years, the school nurse has come into being.

The introduction of the graduate nurse into public education has been rapid and dramatic. No innovation in the schools has ever met, probably, with such instant and spontaneous support and approbation. Little time will be required to convince most school authorities of the wisdom of expenditure involved in the cost of the school nurse. Not only has the nurse more than fulfilled expectations regarding the professional services which she was specifically appointed to render, but she has rapidly developed forms of hygienic service, social and educational, to pupil, home, school, and community, which have naturally grown out of the wonderful opportunities inherent in her work. Moreover, her achievements almost from the beginning have demonstrated the extraordinary value and significance, not only of the direct but the indirect and incidental features of this new field of service.

Prominent among the results already accomplished by capable nurses in this field are the following:

- a) Detecting early signs of communicable disease among school children, many of which would otherwise be overlooked altogether or until the disease, if severe, would have become more pronounced with much more extensive infection of fellow-pupils.

This early detection of disease symptoms results variously in:

1. Marked reduction in the number of cases of infectious disease due to segregation, with consequent actual saving of child life and reduction of school child mortality.

2. Early treatment of disease, with frequent lessening of danger and severity of the disease.
- b) Treatment in school of minor accidents and ailments and of mild cases of local infection under medical direction, with consequent reduction to a minimum of educational loss due to exclusion from school for various forms of injury and disease.
- c) Instruction of mother in the care of the child, in the health of the household, and in manifold aspects of the life of the family, with consequent benefit to the community.
- d) Supervision of sanitary conditions of the school.
- e) Health guidance and instruction given to individuals and groups, according to local conditions, and the opportunities afforded.

While certain aspects of the work of the nurse in the school will be made uniform by formal regulation and accumulating tradition, still many of the most valuable features here must depend upon local need and circumstances; upon personality, skill, and tact of the individual nurse.

On the side of her work which involves prevention, detection, and care of disease, the nurse becomes the skilled helper of the school doctor, public health officer, and family physician.

In aspects of school administration she must act as assistant of school superintendent and principal. Where her work touches that of regular and special teachers in the school, intelligent and sympathetic co-operation is required.

In her contact with the home, wisdom, tact, and fine judgment are needed in order that information, suggestion, and inspiration may be furnished in a way to incite to better standards of living and a finer conduct of individual, home, and community. So far as the welfare of the child is concerned, such an adjustment and co-ordination of forces and persons are required as to permit no needless and wasteful overlapping of factors in the mosaic of influences intended for the protection and training of the child, and at the same time to leave no gap in this composite of forces which will result in neglect or injury.

The school nurse comes into the field of education to fill an important gap in the protection of the child's health and to supplement in various ways the sum of the influences intended for the improvement of individual, home, school, and community life. It is very evident that if

the school or district nurse is to be sufficient not only for strictly professional duties, but for the broader and indirect opportunities of her calling, this field of effort must command the finest type of womanhood in respect to understanding, sympathy, sound judgment, and practical tact in dealing with the manifold problems which she will meet. While some of the best elements of this nurse's ability can arise only from actual experience, yet a new, comprehensive, and varied type of training must be developed to supplement the technical education of the nurse and to prepare her as well as may be possible for this new vocation.

Closely related in certain respects to this profession of the educational nurse is the field of service and responsibility which must be developed in the near future for the woman who is fitted to take professional care of the infant and the "runabout" child below the kindergarten age. While most of the practical care of the baby relates to his physical life and needs, yet the mental and moral education of the child begins from the time of birth. Vital foundations of intellect, personality, and character are laid in the cradle and in the nursery. The simplest reactions of the central nervous system in infancy, and many of the early habits involved in the physical beginnings of life, form the germs of education and are of great potency in the determination of the final characteristics of the individual.

The most important part of education in some respects occurs before the child is old enough to enter the kindergarten or the school. The early care of the baby should be intrusted to a woman who not only is qualified to give the physical care required, but who is able to watch and guard the child with appreciation of the significance of all the factors at this first stage of development in relation to his future well-being.

The nurse-maid of the present is generally inadequate and incompetent. Her position in the family and in society is entirely beneath the right and dignity of a woman qualified to do this important work. The demand for well-educated women in this field will come naturally from the homes of the wealthy and well-to-do, where the conscientious, devoted care of the young is so often lacking.

Here, then, is the prospect of another new skilled profession for women which will call for as high a type as the fields of teaching and nursing. Provision must be made in the near future for the comprehensive training of children's nurses who shall be qualified to care for

the physical, intellectual, and moral beginnings of child development. The development of this field must, in time, influence favorably the standards of mother care in all types of society. These phases of nursing affecting the infant, runabout, and school child will help fill some of the glaring gaps of the present in the complete human nurture of the young.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE NURSE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

ISABEL M. STEWART
with the co-operation of
M. ADELAIDE NUTTING

It is a significant sign of the times that so much attention is being paid to the health of school children. Medical societies, sanitarians, and public-health officials are concerning themselves seriously with the physical defects of children and with the spread of contagious diseases through the schools. Economists are accumulating a great body of statistics to show the enormous wastage of human life through the diseases of infancy and childhood, and the economic loss to the nation from this mortality, as well as from the serious weakening in efficiency and earning power, due to preventable and remediable defects. Philanthropic and charitable societies are concerning themselves chiefly with the social and moral aspects of the problem. The economic and industrial situation is complicated by the terrible prevalence of ignorance, due to the lack of proper teaching somewhere. The schools cannot evade some of the responsibility. Educationalists have always maintained the importance of the healthy body as a basis for the educational process, but they are just beginning to realize how large a factor the school itself is, in manufacturing defects, and in propagating disease in the community.

THE PROBLEM

It seems so obvious as to require no argument, that children in ill health should have attention, that the health of well children should be protected and conserved, that defects which interfere with mental development should be treated and, so far as possible, cured, that the school environment and educational method should at least not contribute to ill health. It is being stated freely that the evils of child labor are not all the results of commercial exploitation, that the crowded classrooms in some of our cities are close competitors with the cotton mills of the South, and that "our buildings, our curricula, our home study, are manufacturing more defects than the physician and nurse

and dispensary can correct."¹ The Committee on the Physical Welfare of School Children in New York² found that 66 per cent needed medical or surgical attention or better nourishment; 40 per cent needed dental care; 38 per cent had enlarged glands of the neck; 31 per cent had defective hearing; 18 per cent had enlarged tonsils. These defects are not confined to the very poor, nor to the children of immigrant parents. Such statistics are before the public and are well known to educationalists. They have been fully presented to this Society in the first part of the *Ninth Yearbook*. In most enlightened communities boards of education and boards of health have combined to investigate conditions and to demonstrate the need of better sanitation, better teaching of hygiene, and medical treatment for these seriously handicapped children.

The medical inspector himself cannot do much to bring about better conditions. He must not even treat the children except for minor ailments. All he can do is to report what he finds, to exclude those children who are a menace to others, and to agitate for something to be done. It seems impossible any longer to fix the responsibility for the child's health exclusively on the parents. Because of ignorance, or poverty, or inefficiency in the home; because of the large proportion of the foreign element in our population, the employment of mothers in industry, the increasing congestion in cities, and the consequent overcrowding of classrooms, the school is compelled to take over many of the functions which formerly devolved on the home. There is thus an increasing accumulation of school functions relating to health. These may be cited briefly:

- a) Sanitary inspection of school buildings, systems of ventilation, etc., with special attention to the daily cleaning and the disinfection of schoolrooms and lavatories.
- b) Medical inspection for detection of contagious diseases and physical defects.
- c) Personal health examination.
- d) Hygiene of instruction.
- e) Emergency service and treatment of minor chronic complaints.

¹ *Ninth Yearbook*, 52.

² Professor Irving Fisher, *Report on National Vitality*, 74.

- f) Instruction of children in personal, home, and community hygiene and sanitation, and the practical application of the laws of health.
- g) Instruction of, and co-operation with, parents.
- h) Physical education.

METHODS OF DEALING WITH THE PROBLEM

It is perfectly evident that the existing organization is powerless to handle all these varied phases of the health problem. As a matter of fact the teaching staff is already so overloaded with duties that it could not seriously undertake more. But even where some attempt is being made to cover the field, it fails in effectiveness because of the lack of co-ordination of the various forces engaged. For instance, in the question of personal hygiene, four or five different instructors are already teaching the subject in different ways and from various stand-points—the regular teacher, the domestic science teacher, the supervisor of physical education, the special teacher of nature-study or biology, the school doctor, and if there is one, the school nurse. Yet, with some excellent exceptions, the subject is notoriously slighted, and there is little practical application of the principles of hygiene to everyday living.

Dr. William H. Allen says:

The teachers themselves, especially in the higher grades, are the first to acknowledge that they have no adequate training for the work, and are not themselves very correctly informed on questions relating to even sanitation and personal hygiene, and less on such subjects as the nature and control of infectious diseases, the prevention of tuberculosis, etc.¹ and again:

Superintendent Maxwell of New York City, and other educational leaders, urge teachers to do their utmost to learn the physical conditions and home environment of the individual child and to fit school treatment to the individual possibilities and handicaps. But experience proves conclusively that, try as they will, teachers and principals have neither the special knowledge nor the time to acquire the special knowledge to use the facts disclosed by the physical examination of school children.

Professor Irving Fisher² points out very clearly that in respect to school hygiene, it is not so much lack of knowledge, as lack of applica-

¹ *Civics and Health*, 286.

² *Report of National Vitality*, chap. ix, "Conservation through Personal Hygiene."

tion of knowledge, which is at fault. To be effective, this application must be made largely in the home where the trouble arises, and here is where the whole difficulty lies. The teacher or the specialist cannot be asked to take on the function of health visitor and sanitary instructor in the home.

There is then a very evident need for some organized expert agency within the school system, to co-ordinate these various offices connected with the health of the school child. This is not a new idea in education. Boards of education have already appointed trained specialists for the teaching of art, manual training, music, physical education, domestic science, etc. Why should we not have supervisors of health in the schools?

The difficulty is in securing the right type of specialist for such a varied line of activities. Dr. Snedden, in advocating such a system, says:

It should be noted that at present there are hardly anywhere men and women who can be put in charge of this work of educational hygiene, for men skilled in medical science alone cannot do it, nor can men who are only teachers. It requires a combination of the results of both kinds of training—in fact, a new field of applied science. But if the demand is once created, gradually a supply of trained workers will be available, for the field offered is certainly attractive to all who incline toward sanitation and preventative medical practice.*

In the meantime we must look to those who are already in the field and try to determine which of the many types of specialist might best be intrusted with the present situation. We have already a very few specially trained physicians who combine a thorough knowledge of disease, its prevention and treatment, with a training in physical education and a knowledge of educational psychology and sociology. Such a person would undoubtedly be the one to direct and co-ordinate all the functions outlined.

For that part of the work which concerns itself specially with the prevention and treatment of diseases, it would seem that a very satisfactory basis would be found in the co-operation of specially trained physicians and nurses in a well-organized, adequately supported system of medical inspection in the schools. The history of the movement most significantly demonstrates the effectiveness of such a combination

* *Report of International Congress on Tuberculosis*, Vol. III.

wherever it has been tried, but its full possibilities have not really been tested. While acknowledging the control of the medical officers in everything that pertains to diagnosis and individual treatment, I wish to show that the nurse has a field here which is peculiarly her own; that she accomplishes through her close personal contact with the child and the home something which has not been accomplished in other ways; that she is a social, an educational, and an economic factor of great significance in this movement; and that an extension of her work would greatly increase the efficiency of the public school.

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL NURSING

Germany.—The development of the system of medical inspection in Germany has been fully discussed in Part I of the *Ninth Yearbook*. It will be noted that the duties of the school physician include such details as the inspection of buildings and playgrounds, lighting, heating, ventilation, choice of desks, and the hygiene of instruction, as well as the thorough and regular physical examination of the school children under his care.

The results of these examinations are reported quite fully to the parents, and if necessary the pupil is excluded until treatment is given. German parents evidently take their duties a little more seriously than either English or American parents, for there seems to be no serious trouble in securing their interest and co-operation in the treatment of defects or disabilities. In some cities a fine is charged for every day of non-attendance, where this is due to carelessness or negligence on the part of the parents. No attempt is made to treat the children in the school, or to follow them to their homes. Indeed the family physicians strenuously oppose any suggestion of treatment on the part of the school physicians. Their work with the children is confined to the investigation, diagnosis, and reporting of abnormal conditions and the exclusion of contagious disease. The poorer children are referred to dispensaries and clinics for treatment. As a rule the school physician has from 2,000 to 3,000 children under his care, and gives his services for a part of the day only, at a salary of from \$125 to \$200 per year. The teachers assist in the routine measurements and are taught to detect the common diseases of childhood. So far as can be gathered from reports, nurses have never been employed in the German system, nor in the continental schools generally. Yet it is stated "that out of

35,000 children examined for admission to school in Berlin in 1905, no less than 3,000 were rejected and sent back home, and 7,600 were put under special medical treatment."¹ It would seem that there is room for some home instruction even in Germany. Probably one reason why nurses have such limited opportunities there is because the nursing schools are largely under the domination of the religious authorities and have had less opportunity for development.

Great Britain.—In the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in 1891, Dr. Malcolm Morris advocated the employment of a staff of specially educated nurses to visit the public elementary schools and inspect the children. This seems to be the first public suggestion of such a plan.

In England the work of school nursing preceded medical inspection in the present accepted sense. There was indeed one permanent medical officer in the city of London whose duty it was "to sit up in the central office and collect statistics."² In 1894 the managers of a school in a very poor district of London asked a district nurse to visit the school and do what she could to relieve the small ills of the children. Her work was found to be very beneficial, and was brought to the notice of one of the members of the London School Board, Miss Honnor Morten, herself a nurse and a prominent social worker and therefore better able perhaps to appreciate what was being done. No organized movement was made till 1898 when a voluntary "School Nurses' Society" was founded with the object of supplying visiting nursing to elementary schools in poor districts. Three nurses were appointed, each with four schools under her care. They treated the children sent to them by the teachers, followed the worst cases to their homes, secured medical attendance for those who required it, and everywhere taught and demonstrated the principles of cleanliness and simple hygiene. In one of its reports the School Nurses' Society briefly describes its purpose:

It must be remembered that the sore heel soon becomes poisoned if left to London dirt, and that the inflamed eyes often lose the power of seeing, simply through neglect. There is no more sure way of securing the health of the people than to arrest small ills at the beginning. A nurse can see at

¹ Dr. Frederick Rose, *International Congress of Nurses* (London); reported in *British Journal of Nursing* (November 20, 1909).

² Honnor Morten, "The London Public School Nurse," *American Journal of Nursing* (January, 1901).

a glance whether a child should be sent to a doctor, she can impress cleanliness, she can follow up bad cases to their homes, she can recognize the early symptoms of fevers and do much to stop the spread of infectious diseases that so often devastate our schools.¹

It was found that cases of bad eyes and dirty heads were practically stamped out of school by six months of regular visiting. The funds to pay the nurses and provide dressings were raised by voluntary subscription, and as soon as finances permitted, extra nurses were added to the staff. Efforts were made to interest the authorities and secure their co-operation. Through Miss Morten and Lord Breay, members both of the School Board and of the School Nurses' Society, permission had been granted in the beginning, on the express stipulation that no expenditure should be entailed in carrying out the experiment. Later the board graciously consented to provide a basin and kettle for the use of the nurse in each school, with the proviso that the outlay should not exceed three shillings for the two articles.²

Everywhere the same story was told of the schools—that they were centers of contagion, especially for such evils as pediculi and ringworm. A specially virulent form of ringworm having broken out in the London schools in 1900, the School Board cautiously appointed one nurse, at a salary of seventy pounds a year, to inspect the children's heads. There were three and one-half million children attending these schools.³

On the appointment of an active and intelligent physician (Dr. Kerr) as medical officer to the London School Board, the whole terrible condition of the children in the schools came before the public. In 1904 the work of the School Board was taken over by the London County Council and put under a progressive management. The London School Nurses' Society, having demonstrated the value of the nurses' services in the school for five years, now applied to the council to have the system taken over and supported by municipal funds. This was done and the staff of nurses was increased to twelve and later to fifty. But the character of the work, as determined by the County Council, was altered, so that the nurses were obliged to restrict their duties merely to reporting, excluding, and giving cards of instruction. Thus

¹ Honnor Morten, "School Nurses in England," *Charities and the Commons* (April 7, 1906).

² *School Board of London Gazette* (February 27, 1900).

³ Honnor Morten. See p. 19, n. 2, and n. 1, above.

the nurse is simply an inspector, and her work is robbed of its prime significance by the elimination of the actual nursing treatment, and the home visiting with its resulting educational benefits.

The example of London was speedily followed by Liverpool, Birmingham, and other big towns, and although some of them have secured municipal aid for their nursing staff, in many cases they are still paid by voluntary agencies. The effectiveness of medical inspection is proven to be dependent on the thoroughness and regularity of the doctor's visits, and the character of his work, but more than all on the co-operation of an efficient nursing staff.

Dr. Hayward, of Wimbledon, England, in his very interesting address given before the Jubilee Congress of District Nursing held in Liverpool, May, 1909, gives a vivid picture of the helplessness of a doctor working alone in a school. He says:

As a doctor I felt quite stranded in the strange atmosphere of an elementary school, coming into contact, not so much with actual illness, as with the primary conditions which produce and foster it. Dirt, neglect, improper feeding, malnutrition, insufficient clothing, suppurating ears, defective sight, verminous conditions, the impossibility of getting adequate information from the children or a knowledge of their home conditions; and nobody to whom one could give directions or who could help in examining the children. The only means of approaching the parents was to send an official notice that such or such a condition required treatment. My duties began and ended with endless notifications, and there it all stopped, as very little notice was taken of them.*

United States.—It was from the work in London that the suggestion came for a nursing staff in the schools of New York. In 1897 one hundred and fifty medical inspectors had been appointed by the Board of Health to visit the schools each day, and inspect all children sent to them by the teachers. The great object was to safeguard the health in the schools by excluding those affected with contagious diseases. The first year 108,628 examinations were made and 6,829 children were excluded on account of some defect or contagion. In 1902 the exclusions had risen to 17,986. At the beginning of the school term it was said that from 15 to 20 children were excluded daily and sometimes as many as 300 out of a single school were out at one time. There was a protest from teachers and parents. Visitors from the settlements

* Quoted in *Visiting Nurses' Quarterly* (Cleveland, April, 1910).

found the excluded children playing on the streets with other children. The cards which had been given them were lost or thrown away; or the parents, failing to understand the meaning of the scientific names or the directions on the card, and unable to appreciate the purpose of the whole thing, simply did nothing. Miss Lillian Wald, head worker of the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement, who had followed the work of the school nurses in England, drew the attention of the Board of Health to this very serious condition of affairs and offered to place one of her staff of visiting nurses in the schools for an experiment of one month. The work of Miss Lina L. Rogers was a convincing demonstration of the value of the trained nurse in the public school.¹ Wherever it was possible she treated the child in the school and thus saved many unnecessary exclusions. The work was approved by Dr. Lederle, the commissioner of health, and by Mr. Burlingham of the Department of Education. In 1903, at the request of the Board of Health, \$30,000 was appropriated to extend the nursing service and put it on a definite basis. This provided a staff of 27 nurses at \$900 per year. These nurses attended 125 local and 4 parochial schools, with an attendance of 219,239 pupils. Under the new system the number excluded for the month of September, 1903, was 1,101, as compared with 10,567 for the same month in 1902. Since that time the New York staff has been increased to 141 nurses, including supervisors, all giving their entire time to the work.

Dr. Cronin of New York maintains that in a school population of 650,000, 30 per cent of the children were from 1 to 2 years behind their proper class. Of these backward children 95 per cent were so principally because of defects of eye, ear, nose, or throat, which could easily have been detected and remedied through effective medical inspection.² From the work of the school nurses he testified that "exclusion has been reduced 99 per cent, thus saving the city large sums of money and annulling all the obnoxious features of wholesale exclusion which, if continued, would contribute to truancy and illiteracy."³

¹ Lina L. Rogers, "School Nursing in New York City," *American Journal of Nursing* (March, 1903); "Nurses in the Public Schools of New York City," *Charities and the Commons* (April 7, 1906).

² *Report on National Vitality*, 73.

³ "Medical Treatment at School," *Report of Second International Congress of School Hygiene* (London).

It is stated¹ that when the child takes ten years to complete work which should take but eight, the cost of education is increased 25 per cent. It would thus be possible to work out on an economic basis alone the strongest possible argument for the employment of school nurses.

Under Dr. Darlington, the nursing service in New York was extended and further organized. He is unqualified in his commendation of the work as a supplement to medical inspection.

The present method of the medical inspection and examination of school children is noteworthy, for the practice of not only examining each child for physical abnormalities but for the method whereby the parents' attention is called to the presence of the defect, and repeated home visits are made by the nurses to explain and urge the necessity of treatment. During the school year of 1908-9, 323,344 children were examined; 242,048 were found to be suffering from some non-contagious physical defect. Of this number 203,488, or 84.06 per cent, were placed under treatment.

In contrast to that I might say that until this last year, the practice was to send a postal card to each parent with return postage. We had only two per cent of these cards returned, and we found that six per cent of the children underwent treatment until this last school year. Now 84 per cent are put under treatment. They are not treated by the Health Department, but by the clinics or family physician; the attention of the family is called to the trouble.

This result was made possible by the effective work performed by the nursing staff, and illustrates forcibly the value of individual contact in educational work of this nature.²

Miss Rogers, who was for some years director of school nursing in New York, reports:

The principals tell us that the condition in the school is 100 per cent better, and that the attendance has increased 75 per cent. What better demonstration can be given of the importance of keeping the children in good physical condition, to insure a proper frame of mind to receive the knowledge so freely imparted in the schools?

Again from the paper by J. A. Kalb, I quote:

A study of 1,400 children in New York was begun in the summer of 1906. These children had been reported as needing medical, dental, or ocular care, or better nourishment.

¹ J. A. Kalb, *Hygiene and Medicine in Relation to the School* (Columbia University thesis).

² *Woman's Municipal League Bulletin* (New York, January, 1910).

The futility of a physical examination without further action to insure medical treatment or hygienic environment was clearly demonstrated by re-examination in the spring. In the major number of instances these children were found to be worse than the first. Unless the work is followed up, no sufficient improvement will be made. The home conditions in so many cases are appalling, due to insufficient light, ventilation, and poor food.

The experience of New York in the matter of exclusions has been repeated in many other cities. According to Dr. Newmayer of Philadelphia:

In a school population of 157,500, the number of examinations made in April, May, June, and September, 1904, was over 700,000. Those excluded for contagious disease were 7,600. If school nurses had been provided, 7,000 of these could have remained at school, or lost but a short time.

Jane Addams sums the matter up in an address on "The Visiting Nurse and the Public Schools":

The best of medical inspection succeeds only in sending the child home; they say that such and such a child would have a bad effect on the other children, and therefore he is sent back to the family physician for treatment. In most cases a family physician is not called in, because, in the words of Artemus Ward, "there ain't none," and therefore the child is kept out indefinitely, and the public school, so far as that child is concerned, is doing nothing, and the child continues to play in the alley and on the streets or sit in the doors of the tenement with the rest of them.

This is the whole idea—that medical inspection was succeeded and almost transposed by the addition of the visiting nurses. The medical inspection got the child out of school, and the visiting nurse got the child back. It seems almost foolish to have medical inspection without the visiting nurse. Not that we would abandon the medical inspection; in no sense are they rivals, and in no sense is the nurse to make a diagnosis, but one without the other is insufficient and not to be tolerated. I am sure that here in Chicago we are working toward the nurses in the schools. We had them for one halcyon ten weeks, but owing to lack of funds and political difficulties, the ten weeks were all we were able to get.²

This is the economic aspect of the nurse's work. There is another view of it from the public-health standpoint. Miss Lina L. Rogers says:

Possibly the most important of direct results and the most far-reaching came from the visiting of the homes, where the most unsanitary conditions

² *American Journal of Nursing* (1908).

were discovered: An entire family using the same towel where a child was excluded from school with contagious eye trouble; cases where the child sent home with a severe form of scabies was helping to finish and carry bundles of sweat-shop clothing; filthy yards where delicate children played; patients in the last stages of consumption, living and sleeping in the same room with the family.¹

From November 1, 1903, to May 12, 1904, 891 cases of contagious disease that had not been reported to the Board of Health were discovered in the homes by the school nurses.

Dr. Thomas F. Harrington, of Boston, makes a point of this in speaking of the prevention of tuberculosis:

The school nurse has opportunities to find the chronically ill which are not afforded to the district nurse, the dispensary nurse, nor to the social worker. All of these enter the homes after the case of tuberculosis has been discovered or reported. The school nurse, on the other hand, enters the home as the friend of the children, and there finds often the advanced case of tuberculosis, which otherwise would have gone unrecognized and unreported until death. When I tell you that the thirty school nurses in the Department of School Hygiene of Boston have visited 22,000 homes of school children during the past year, some magnitude of the opportunities afforded in this line may be imagined. I would urge that the greater part of our efforts against the spread of tuberculosis be directed toward the finding and the segregation of the advanced and the incurable cases of this disease. Here lies, I believe, the greatest hope for the future.²

Los Angeles was the second city in the United States to adopt the new plan. The work was begun by the Visiting Nurse Society and taken over by the city, three nurses being appointed for eighty schools.

In Seattle two nurses in six months visited 265 schools, inspected 15,947 pupils, and made 1,070 home visits; 1,452 children were treated for small ailments and cured, 947 improved, and 1,217 were still under treatment. 1,886 cases were reported to the medical inspectors, 397 children were operated on for the removal of tonsils and adenoids, 294 fitted with glasses, and out of 461 cases of pediculosis, 416 were cleaned up. The nurses took 28 needy children to physicians or orthopedic hospitals to be cared for.

In San Francisco in 1904, Miss Elizabeth Ashe and Miss Daisy

¹ *Charities and the Commons* (April 7, 1906), 69.

² *Report of the International Congress on Tuberculosis* (Washington, 1908), III, 584.

Johnston from the nurses' settlement worked for six months without remuneration, in the hope of convincing either the health or the education authorities of the necessity of some kind of medical inspection in the schools. They got no verbal or written acknowledgment of their services from either body, but were more than repaid by the appreciation of the teachers and children and the improved health and attendance of the latter. When the Board of Health put physicians in the schools, the nurses withdrew, owing to the complete lack of interest exhibited by the authorities. School nursing was however established in 1908 with a staff of five nurses.¹

In Chicago, Detroit, Philadelphia, Grand Rapids, Washington, Seattle, and other cities the work was begun voluntarily by the local visiting nursing associations, and later taken over more or less completely by the Board of Education or the Board of Health. In Philadelphia, Miss Anna Stanley has done rare pioneer work in the interests of school nursing. The Visiting Nurse Society offered her services and she was detailed to four downtown schools. Through her efforts, in four months contagious skin diseases were eradicated from these schools, and filth conditions were greatly reduced. Dr. Newmayer,² one of the most progressive of the medical inspectors in Philadelphia, says of her work:

The percentage of pediculosis existing in the schools where the nurse began her work in April, 1904, was 30 per cent. This has been reduced to 8 per cent. This is due to the influence of the nurse at the homes. Conjunctivitis and corneal ulcers received no attention from parents and were treated only after the children were taken in charge by the nurse. They were soon cured and the children able to resume studies. These cases included several in which corneal ulcer threatened the sight. Weak, anaemic children, unable to work or study, due to impoverishment from improper or no food, were visited in their homes and the existing difficulties corrected. Over 200 children with bad defective vision were treated and supplied with necessary glasses only through much persuasion and the persistent efforts of the nurse. This often required many home visits. The above reports show the remarkable results of medical inspection; but it requires the trained nurse to lend assur-

¹ E. M. Hickey, *Nurses' Journal of the Pacific Coast* (October, 1908); Elizabeth H. Ashe, *ibid.* (May, 1908).

² S. W. Newmayer, M.D., "Trained Nurses in the Public Schools as a Factor in the Education of the Children," *American Journal of Nursing* (December, 1906), 185; "System Employed by the Trained Nurse in the Schools of Philadelphia," *ibid.*, (January, 1907), 254.

ance that the advice given by the physician, in the cases he examines patiently day by day, is not thrown away. The medical inspector has accomplished much, but only with the trained school nurse, and her individual care, personal inquiry and knowledge of home life, is the highest degree of efficiency in education procured.

Dr. Witmer of the Psychological Clinic in Philadelphia, who has employed Miss Stanley's services in his hospital school for defective children, says of her that "if the school nurse becomes an accepted institution in the Philadelphia schools, it will be largely owing to her pioneer work, and to the support given the work by the Visiting Nurse Society." She started in 1904. In 1908, six school nurses were appointed by the Board of Education in Philadelphia.

It will be noted that in America and also in England, the initiative has usually come, not from the school board or often from the board of health, but from organizations or individuals outside the school. In many cases physicians have volunteered their services as consultants and occasional visitors for longer or shorter periods. In Miss Waters' recent work on *Visiting Nursing in the United States*, the records show very clearly that in most of the cities in the United States where school nursing has been established, the first move has been made by nursing organizations supported by private subscriptions. In many cases they are still carrying it on, often with little official recognition or co-operation, but with hope of the ultimate conversion of the authorities. In some places the work was started by a charity organization society, in others by a church, a woman's club, a fathers' and mothers' club, or a settlement; in one case a publishing company (*The Delineator*) supported several school nurses. It is but fair to say that the hesitation on the part of boards of education is due not so much perhaps to indifference, as to the inadequacy of the educational exchequer and a conflict of opinion as to what is the most immediate need. Sometimes it is due to a misunderstanding of the real purpose of school nursing. In a paper on "The Visiting Nurse in a Small City," Miss Crane, of Kalamazoo, Mich., writes:

Some time ago we applied for permission for our district nurse to undertake nursing in one of the public schools, thinking that if it proved a success we would endeavor to procure two nurses and do nursing in several of the schools, and that we would be able to give more careful attention also to the matter of tuberculosis. Permission was denied us, because of a plan in the mind of a member of the school board to introduce medical inspection by

physicians next year. We feel that even were there regular medical inspection, the visiting nurse is still a necessity to further the work of the physician.²

This whole work of visiting nursing, which has been so successful in Kalamazoo, was undertaken by the Woman's Civic Improvement League of that city. There is no organized National District Nursing Association in America to cover the small towns and the remoter districts. In England, Scotland, and Ireland, where there is such a large organization established by the late queen and generously endowed in her memory, both city and country are well supplied with "queen's nurses." These district nurses have done much to provide more or less regular care and attention to the needs of school children, as well as to the poor in their homes. In Canada, the Victorian Order, a similar organization, has also done something toward establishing school nursing in two or three of the larger cities.

When Miss Waters' book was published in 1909, the following cities in the United States had more or less complete systems of school nursing.²

MUNICIPALITIES EMPLOYING PUBLIC-SCHOOL NURSES

State	City	Under Department of	Estab- lished	No. of Nurses
California.....	Berkeley	Board of Education	1909	1
California.....	Los Angeles	Board of Health	1903	4
California.....	San Francisco	Department of Health	1908	4
Colorado.....	Pueblo	Department of Education	1909	1
Georgia.....	Atlanta	Department of Education	1909	1
Illinois.....	Chicago	Department of Health	1908	41
Iowa.....	Des Moines	Board of Education	1905	2
Maryland.....	Baltimore	Department of Health	1905	5
Massachusetts....	Boston	Department of Education	1905	34
Massachusetts....	Brookline	Department of Education	1909	1
Massachusetts....	Cambridge	Department of Health	1907	1
Michigan.....	Detroit	Board of Health	1906	2
Michigan.....	Grand Rapids	Board of Education	1905	3
New Jersey.....	Jersey City	Board of Health	1907	2
New Jersey.....	Orange	Board of Education	1906	2
New York.....	New York	Department of Health	1901	141
New York.....	Syracuse	Board of Health	1908	2
Ohio.....	Cincinnati	Board of Health	1909	2
Ohio.....	Cleveland	Board of Education	1908	2
Oregon.....	Portland	City of Portland	1908	1
Pennsylvania....	Harrisburg	Board of Education	1908	1
Pennsylvania....	Philadelphia	Board of Education	1908	6
Washington.....	Seattle	Board of Education	1908	2
Washington.....	Tacoma	Board of Education	1908	1

² Caroline Bartlett Crane, *Charities and the Commons* (April 7, 1906).

² *Visiting Nursing in the United States*, 367.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL NURSE AND VARIOUS ESTIMATES OF
HER VALUE

The functions of the school nurse vary widely, each city or town working out its own system according to its needs and the special features of its organization. The question of expense is probably the largest determining factor. Some of these functions may be mentioned briefly.

a) Assistant to the school doctor in his visits of inspection—preparing children for examination, recording data, testing vision, hearing, etc.

b) Routine daily, weekly, or monthly inspection in classrooms.

c) Keeping of records, sending out reports to parents, cards to principals, etc.

d) Treatment of routine cases in the school—bathing eyes, irrigating ears, dressing wounds, etc.

e) Emergency service—caring for accidents, fainting, convulsions, etc.

f) Instruction of children in personal hygiene and sanitation—practical demonstrations and talks.

g) Follow-up work in the homes—notifying physicians, instruction of mothers in the care of children, taking children to dispensaries, dental clinics, etc., for treatment, when necessary.

h) Sanitary inspection of homes—discovering and reporting contagious diseases to Board of Health.

i) Reporting of truancy cases.

j) Teachers' and mothers' meetings.

k) Summer work in prevention of infant mortality—playground supervision, fresh-air excursions, etc.

In no one system are all these functions incorporated. Indeed, the staff of nurses is usually so entirely inadequate that only the most needy and pressing cases can be attended to. Some authorities consider one feature of the work of surpassing importance, others emphasize quite a different feature. But so far as the literature on the subject may be trusted, there seem to be no two opinions regarding the value of the nurse's work. Doctors, teachers, social workers, parents, and children are almost unanimous in their approval, and the best part of it is that the nurses themselves are enthusiastic over its possibilities.

It may be well to quote here the opinions of a few additional authori-

ties on the subject. The school physicians are the ones who ought to know best whether the nurse has made good in the field of health inspection. Dr. Newmayer, of Philadelphia, has written much on this phase of medical inspection.

The results obtained with little friction among doctor, nurse, the parent, and school teachers, are the best evidence of the success of our system. . . .

The weak point in medical inspection lies in the fact that it brings to light conditions over which we can have very little control. We cannot alter the home environment or compel attention to any directions given. It is possible however to influence and instruct at the homes, and this can be best effected by the aid of a well-trained nurse. I look upon the services of a nurse as one of the most essential factors in any system of medical inspection. . . .

There are various problems to be solved in each case and the nurse invariably finds the remedy. The duties of the school nurse assure success to the work of the medical inspector in improving the health of the school children.

Dr. Helen C. Putnam, whose work in medical sociology is so well known, in an address given at the Second International Congress of School Hygiene, London, remarks:

Medical inspection instructs indirectly but forcefully by drawing attention of pupils, parents, and the public to communicable diseases; to care of the person, general health and development; to school furnishings, lighting, ventilation, and playgrounds; but instructs most efficiently where school nurses are employed. It means much in two of our largest cities where from fifty to eighty thoroughly trained nurses not only attend to the minor ailments at the schools, but daily radiate therefrom into homes, showing mothers details of cleaning, feeding, clothing children and of caring for the premises. The immediate result observed is that the pupils sent from school by the physician return sooner and in better condition, and that many otherwise unknown wrongs to childhood are reported to proper authorities for correction.¹

It is interesting to note the change in the textbooks on school hygiene within the last few years. In *Medical Inspection of School Children*,² published in 1904, there is a most thorough treatment of the subject of physical examinations, anthropometry tests, etc., and the authors show the new social standpoint in their recommendations for the investigation of housing conditions, the economic and wage-earning capacity of the parents, the healthiness or unhealthiness of local occupations,

¹ *Report of Second International Congress of School Hygiene*, 924.

² W. L. MacKenzie, M.D., and Edwin Matthew, *Medical Inspection of School Children*.

conditions determining food-supply, of the feeding of infants, of the nurture of mothers before and after child-birth, and of many other conditions, customs, etc., which so directly influence the health of school children and of the race. But while they recommend women sanitary inspectors for some of this work, only in one brief note describing the New York system do they mention nurses. They define the function of medical inspection, as the collecting of data as a basis for correct inductions, rather than the actual, immediate remedying of conditions.

More recent writers go farther, and in most of the works published within the last four years one chapter or more is devoted to the school nurse. A. H. Hogarth,¹ of London, writing in 1909, says:

The school nurse represents as new an idea in the school world as the school doctor. She is not a nurse in the usual acceptance of the term, but a woman who has had the scientific training of a nurse. On the other hand she is not merely a sanitary inspector or a health visitor. She is an education officer employed by an educational authority for certain routine medical duties in connection with education. As in the hospital, so in the school, she is the doctor's assistant and works under his direction.

In *Civics and Health*, published in 1908, Dr. Allen repeatedly emphasizes the value of the nurse, not only in the school but in almost all kinds of social-service work. Here he speaks particularly of an investigation by the Bureau of Municipal Research in New York to determine the reason for the ineffectiveness of medical inspection, under the older régime. Where home visiting was established—

the net average result of a day's work by a nurse was the actual treatment of over five children, three of them completely, and two of them for one or more defects, sixty cents per child!

Having established the willingness—even eagerness—of parents to do all in their power to remove defects that handicapped their children, it was obviously the duty of the health department so to organize its work that it could insure the education of parents.

So conclusive were the results of follow-up work efficiently supervised by the Department of Health, that school officials are, for the present, inclined to waive the demand for the transfer of physicians and nurses to the Board of Education, and to substitute education for compulsion with parents who obstinately refuse to take proper remedial measures for their children when reported defective.²

¹ A. H. Hogarth, M.B., *Medical Inspection of Schools*, chap. xii, p. 172.

² W. H. Allen, *Civics and Health*, 299-300.

Ralph H. Crowley, M.D., writing of the "Hygiene of School Life" in 1910, quotes the Board of Education of London as reporting that they are satisfied that this work offers a great field of valuable service for the school nurse, and they recommend that wherever practicable, education authorities should secure, especially in rural districts, the benefit and *true economy* which may thus be obtained.¹

He further states that

the two main requirements of medical inspection are: first, that children should receive treatment; and secondly, that the treatment should be adequate.

The writer's own experience in the past has been that not more than about one-third of the parents notified have paid attention to such notices, and the reason undoubtedly in many cases is because the parents do not believe that the defects are such as are worth troubling about. The further opportunities now available for making inspection and reinspection more thorough, for interviewing parents or sending a nurse or health visitor around to the home, will undoubtedly lead to a much larger number of children receiving attention than heretofore.²

The superintendent of schools of Los Angeles, Cal., writes that one school nurse, through her untiring efforts, has created a sentiment of cleanliness not only among the scholars but among the families in certain sections of the city.

In *Medical Inspection of Schools*, published in 1908, the work is presented from the standpoint of both the physician and educationalist.

To sum up the case for the school nurse—she is the teacher of the parents, the pupils, the teachers, and the family in applied practical hygiene. Her work prevents loss of time on the part of the pupils and vastly reduces the number of exclusions for contagious diseases. She cures minor ailments in the school and furnishes efficient aid in emergencies. She gives practical demonstrations in the home, of required treatments, often discovering there the source of the trouble, which, if undiscovered, would render useless the work of the medical inspector in the school. The school nurse is the most efficient possible link between the school and the home. Her work is immensely important in its direct results and very far-reaching in its indirect influences. Among foreign populations she is a very potent force for Americanization.³

¹ R. H. Crowley, *Hygiene of School Life*.

² *Ibid.*, 163-64.

³ Gulick and Ayres, *Medical Inspection of Schools*, 80.

ATTITUDE OF TEACHERS TO SCHOOL NURSING

As might be expected the teachers were not all at first favorable to the new plan. Hogarth says:

The functions of a school nurse are likely to be extended in many directions, but if the teachers are not in harmony with the work, difficulties will inevitably arise. Experience in London, however, has shown that the majority of teachers, so far from objecting to the nurse, have constantly asked for more frequent visits and have, from the first, taken a pride and interest in the cleanly condition of the children attending their schools. Such co-operation is essential for a satisfactory and efficient school nursing service.¹

The following is the testimony of a school nurse:

At first a number of school teachers, and even principals objected, but a very short time served to show that these could be classified into three groups. Those who did not understand just what school nursing meant and feared that it would result in interfering with the school routine or lower the attendance, when convinced that such was not the case became ardent advocates of it. Next came those who feared that part of the funds necessary to maintain the work were to be deducted from the already slender appropriation of the Board of Education.

The third group consisted of those who were old-fashioned and firmly believed that measles, scarlet fever, and diphtheria were dispensations of Providence, which everyone *had* to bear sooner or later, and the sooner we had them and got over it the better; also that pediculi, ring-worm, impetigo, and scabies were afflictions of childhood, unpleasant to be sure, but not to be avoided. The members of this group withdrew into their shells, as it were, and dismissed the whole subject of medical inspection as one more "fad" which had to be thrust upon them. They neither assisted nor hindered, they simply ignored. They saw none of the good accomplished, but mentally filed for future reference any mistake or unpleasantness which occurred.

Lastly (and to their credit this group was extremely small) came a few narrow individuals who felt that the school and all it contained was their personal property, and that any person coming into it must necessarily be guided by what they thought. *They* preferred to say whether a child should be excluded or readmitted to school; what rooms routine inspection should be done in, and how frequently. In short, *they* wished to conduct the medical inspection of the pupils, not according

¹ Hogarth, *Medical Inspection in Schools*, 186.

to the ideas of the medical inspectors and school nurses, whose professional training qualified them for the work, but according to their own personal whims and fancies.¹ Most of the school nurses however speak with the greatest appreciation of the co-operation of teachers and principals in their work.

ATTITUDE OF CHILDREN AND PARENTS

The appreciation of the children is often amusing and always gratifying. They become very much attached to the school nurse and sometimes invent the most impossible ailments so they may consult with her. Every child loves to be mothered and a nurse should be essentially "a mother." They have the greatest faith in her powers. A little boy in Liverpool was found dragging his infant brother along to the school "to get the lady to cure his eyes." When the school nurse visits the homes, they all crowd around her, bringing their babies for her inspection, and insisting that she visits every sick man, woman, and child in the tenement or in the street.

The parents are not always so easily dealt with. One meets everywhere the unalterable conviction that dirt is healthy, vermin inevitable, and sickness just luck. The mother who knows all about ringworm because all her children had it and persists that "if they *are* to git it, they *will* git it," is not easily convinced of the possibility of its absolute prevention. She "don't 'old with fightin' Providence," but pins her faith to the good old treatment of "hink and tobacco hash." Some mothers object to all this fuss about cleanliness because they "don't want their children to get too high-toned." Another knows that if we were intended to wear glasses we'd be born with them, and presents the unanswerable argument that "if adenoids are not good for people, why were they put there?" They have an astonishing faith in the gospel of "things as they are." The foreigners are often suspicious and seem to be unable to grasp the idea of any person doing anything for them merely from a desire to help them. The men, who have some little acquaintance with the ways of the street, are willing to bet anything that the doctors and nurses are getting something out of this thing "on the side." But the mother who meets the nurse with a perfect torrent of abuse and declares with much emphasis that she never will allow anyone "to take

¹ C. R. Kefauver, "Obstacles in the Path of the School Nurse," *American Journal of Nursing* (August, 1909).

out Johnny's eyes and scrape 'em," is quite mollified when she knows the real reason and extent of the operation, and ends by inviting the nurse to "stay to tea."

The work requires endless tact, patience, and real sympathy with, and understanding of, the people. Miss A. W. Kerr, who directs the work in New York, says:

There are many pitfalls in the way. The nurse must not diagnose cases, she must not interfere with any physician's practice, she must not antagonize the family, and she must know their language, understand their customs, and respect their pride. She must see that defects are corrected, glasses supplied, that tea and coffee are cut out of a child's diet and milk and eggs substituted.

She is always running up against difficult situations, national prejudices, and national customs. To deal with these wisely requires no small knowledge of psychology and sociology, as well as a practical insight into actual conditions.

It is all very well to say in general, give meat or milk or eggs, but when these articles are seldom or never used, it is better to say to an Italian mother, "Give to Theresa less spaghetti and more oil," or to a Russian one, "Do not let Katia have so much kale, but give her plenty of noodles." That is practical advice and is likely to be followed.

In persuading the parent to attend to such defects as adenoids, bad vision, etc., the wise visitor studies the dominant national traits of each group and appeals to these. In an American community it is national pride—the desire to have the American child equal, if not superior, to every other. In a Swedish community it would be shown that removal of physical defects renders a child brighter and more successful in life. In a Jewish district, the ultimate saving in increased earning capacity that results from better health, and the great financial waste of sickness is the dominant argument. Above all, the public needs to be constantly educated in one thing—that is, that it as tax-payer is maintaining the boards of education and of health, and that it has the greatest reason for demanding the highest interest on capital invested.

But the results are on the whole encouraging, and the nurses see the fruits of their labors, and receive much real gratitude. The following is one of the hundreds of such testimonies:

DER NURS: I lov yu becos yu mak wel mi mary. It is gud dat de schul has such a gud womin to luk after de childen. mi usband tanks yu to. God bles yu.

SCHOOL NURSING IN RELATION TO THE MEDICAL PROFESSION

The family physician has resented the offices of the school nurses in some cases on the ground that they defraud him of his rightful practice. This is not perhaps without some reason. It is very hard for her to know always when a family is able to pay for treatment and when the child ought to be taken to the dispensary. Then professional grafters *have* been known to invade even a system of medical inspection, using their office to secure patronage either for themselves or their friends. Here between her rigid code of professional ethics and her desire to do the best for the child and the family, the nurse is surely in a difficult position.

It is an old tradition, fostered by the military system under which trained nursing came into being, that the nurse's first and only duty is to obey orders. The doctor is the captain and she is the private, and she is there not to question nor even to understand his mandates, but simply to do what she is told. There are still many physicians who hold that obedience is the only requisite in a nurse, and who jealously oppose any system of training or any plan for raising educational standards which might give her a broader understanding of her problem, and thus increase the scope of her labors. Such men are filled with apprehension at the powers which are being placed in the hands of the school nurse, particularly in the detection of pathological symptoms and abnormalities, which they consider to be really the assumption of her ability to diagnose disease.

It may as well be emphatically stated that it is no part of the school nurse's plan to supplant the doctor either in the school or the home. She is there to supplement him, to carry out his instructions, and to see that they are made effective. But she does more than this, as has been shown; her function in the school is largely a social and educational one. She does not covet the field of medical practice; her own field is an ample one, rich in opportunities, wonderful in its possibilities, and fruitful in its results. It offers scope for all her highest faculties, and presents large problems for investigation, for development, and adjustment.

Some of the difficulties encountered are doubtless due to the nurse herself. She has not always been the best person for her place, and neither her school nor her hospital training has fitted her fully for her work in this new social field. She herself is in process of evolution, and only as she

adapts herself to the special needs of the situation has she any hope of ultimate survival. I have attempted to show by the history of medical inspection that the visiting nurse *has* done this in a rather effective way in school nursing, and that she is the logical person for any such work. But this is not to say that all nurses are fitted to be school nurses, any more than all teachers are fitted to be kindergartners.

Many nurses are essentially doers and not teachers, many do not care particularly for children, others grumble at the routine of school work, and prefer the more varied and strenuous experiences of hospital or district work or the more lucrative service of private nursing. A more careful selection of school nurses on the ground of personal qualifications and professional training would obviate many difficulties.

OTHER TYPES OF SCHOOL WORK IN WHICH NURSES ARE ENGAGED

It is not only in the ordinary school, however, that the visiting nurse comes into contact with the children and demonstrates her value as a teacher and promoter of health. In open-air schools for anaemic, tubercular, or convalescent children, she is employed in more strictly nursing duties, seeing that the little patients are warmly clad, watching for signs of fatigue, attending to matters of diet, etc. In schools for defectives and cripples, in institutions for the blind, in reformatories and all such institutions where the physical condition is so often the key to mental and moral improvement, nurses are employed in increasing numbers. In the home and school visiting work undertaken by the Public Education Association of New York, it happened last year that three out of five of the visitors appointed had been district nurses. Their duties did not primarily relate to health at all, but it is found that the wide practical training of the visiting nurse gives her social insight and an easy entrance into the homes. It might be added that two at least of these nurses had been formerly teachers, not at all an unusual combination among nurses. This makes them as much at home in the schoolroom as the hospital ward or the sick room, and makes an excellent basis for the specialized training in psychology and sociology which is needed for work with defective and delinquent children. Dr. Witmer speaks of the great value of such a teacher-nurse employed in his hospital school for defective children in Philadelphia.¹

¹ Lightner Witmer, Ph.D., "The Hospital School," *Psychological Clinic* (October 15, 1907).

Some of the large residential schools and colleges now engage a trained nurse to attend the cases of illness, but it is significant that emphasis is being laid more and more on the preventive rather than the ameliorative aspect of her work, so that she is really a supervisor of health in the dormitories. Statistics show a marked decrease in small ailments and in contagious diseases, and an improvement in the general health of the school body, where this work has been carried on intelligently and faithfully.

TUBERCULOSIS WORK

Some mention should be made of other activities where nurses are engaged, which touch the educational problem rather intimately. The societies for the prevention of tuberculosis are convinced that if they can only teach the school children the practical, vital principles of sanitation and the simple facts about tuberculosis, it will be a most important contribution to the suppression of a world plague. Very little can be done with the mothers and fathers whose habits are more or less fixed and who on account of fatigue or despair or simple indifference have lost the power of readily assimilating new ideas. But the children are alert and impressionable, and their co-operation is easily secured. In some cities from 30 per cent to 50 per cent of the school children are already infected with tuberculosis and in all schools many will inevitably contract the disease. Dr. Farrand says at the lowest estimate there are now in the schools of the United States 150,000 children who have well-marked symptoms of tuberculosis. The application of a few simple hygienic and sanitary rules would save a great number of those children. If they can only be made to feel the importance of the problem, there is hope that the homes of the future at least will be made comparatively safe.

In Pittsburgh and Cincinnati where the anti-tuberculosis propaganda is particularly active, a nurse is employed for the public-school work. With the permission of the school board and the co-operation of principals and teachers, she arranges for talks in every schoolroom or, in some cases, for larger groups in the assembly halls where she has a lantern and stereopticon views. These talks are very short and simple, suited to the age and character of her listeners. The aim is to give an elementary working knowledge of tuberculosis and how to combat it. Illustrations are used, exhibits are set up in the schools,

and attractive illustrated circulars are distributed afterward, with instruction that the children are to take them home and explain them to their parents and friends. Sometimes they write essays on the subject, and their work shows a remarkably clear understanding of the main points involved.¹ Dr. John M. Withrow, superintendent of the Cincinnati League, writes:

I cannot speak too heartily in favor of education in the schools as a means of promoting our work. We have found it here to be one of the especially effective and popular features of our work. I am inclined to think that it is the best means of reaching into the home.

Dr. White of Pittsburgh, speaking at the Sixth International Congress on Tuberculosis in Washington, 1908, says:²

I wish to call especially to your attention the educational work in the schools. No one can do municipal work without being convinced that it cannot be done without a trained nurse, but her duty is that of an educator, and there is no one who can enter the home as readily as the nurse can do, and as a woman can do. We must take the impressionable age, and that is childhood. You must accomplish results by repetition; results will come in time. Remember that unless we have systematic efforts in education they will not be of much value. We must continue year after year to do this work if we are to obtain results.

In both these cities the nurse gives talks to mothers, to working girls' clubs, Young Women's Christian Associations, and other groups of women. In Cincinnati the school instructress, as she is called, addresses also the pupils in the parochial schools, and the priests have invited her to talk to the Sunday-school children on Sunday afternoons. But the talks in themselves are useless unless the subject is made concrete and practical. Almost none of them, children or parents, grasp the significance of what they see and hear, except as it is interpreted to them and related to their lives. If such work as this could be made a feature of public-school instruction throughout the country, we might reasonably expect a marked fall in the death rate, not only from tuberculosis but from other preventable diseases. Results are seen already in increased attendance at clinics, more intelligent treatment of the sick, and more sanitary conditions in the schools and homes. This is

¹ Bertha L. Stark, "Anti-Tuberculosis Work in the Pittsburgh Public Schools," *Report of the Sixth International Congress on Tuberculosis*, III.

² *Ibid.*, 583.

only one phase of the general campaign of education in the homes, dispensaries, hospitals, sanitariums, and everywhere. The moving-picture show is the latest addition to the teaching forces, and will doubtless help much in interesting the children. This school work has been taken up in Columbus, Cleveland, Philadelphia, Hamilton, Ontario, Hartford, Connecticut, Salem, Massachusetts, and Washington, D.C., on the same plan, and many other cities have written asking for information and copies of the literature distributed. Inquiries have been received from Russia and other foreign countries.²

I quote Dr. Darlington again in regard to the need for this teaching and the peculiar function of the visiting nurse:

In all large communities, the poorer element of the foreign-born population presents the greatest problem encountered in municipal health work. Diversified in their habits, often superstitious and resentful of any interference with their mode of life, oppressed by poverty, frequently ignorant or neglectful of the simplest sanitary requirements, their assimilation as citizens of their adopted country comes only as a result of education—persistent, inclusive, and never-ending.

In public-health work this education is brought about by various means. Lectures, printed instructions and publicity in all its forms are used, but the most valuable and effective form is found in *individual instruction in the home*. Personal efforts, advice, instruction, and demonstration offer the most practical and effective means, and we have found the employment of trained nurses for this purpose of inestimable value.

Dr. Livingston Farrand, secretary of the National Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, in a recent lecture at Teachers College, said that after all the forces of prevention and cure have been set in operation—exhibits, lectures, sanitarium, preventoria, dispensaries, etc.—he believed that the most important work of all would still be the actual teaching and treatment of the cases in the homes by visiting nurses.

Dr. Osler never loses an opportunity of magnifying the nurse's office:

The district nurse is a ministering angel everywhere. If I were not a man, I would rather than anything else be a district nurse. The work they do in connection with tuberculosis is of the greatest value—visiting the patients, watching over them, advising them, teaching them how to lead rational lives.

² *The Tuberculosis League of Pittsburgh* (published monthly).

Dr. Edward Trudeau, of Saranac, the great apostle of the movement in America, says:

In regard to my opinion of the value of the district or dispensary nurse in the combat with tuberculosis, I have always felt that the nurse's visit to the house and her personal contact with the people were *essential* to any degree of success in diminishing infection in the home. . . . People who won't go to lectures, won't read and won't do anything they hear from their associates they ought to do, will gather around a nurse in their own homes and appreciate at once how simple are the measures necessary for their protection. I think the nurse a most indispensable weapon in the great warfare and that she perhaps accomplishes more in practical prevention than any other agency.

INFANT MORTALITY

It is the same story with infant mortality. Both of these great destroyers of life, tuberculosis and the diseases of infancy, affect the school in a very vital way. Sir James Crichton-Browne makes the statement that:

Of all infants born in our large towns, some 20 or 30 per cent are visibly damaged at the time of birth, and of the 70 per cent or 80 per cent that pass muster then, some probably bear in their nervous systems hidden marks of maternal privation that will come to the surface by and by.¹

It seems more and more evident that if the race is to be radically improved, it is necessary to begin before school age, indeed before birth in the education and care of the mother, and later in the protection of the child. Physicians, philanthropists and educationalists, domestic-science experts and vital statisticians are all working toward the solution of this big problem. Dr. J. H. M. Knox, assistant in pediatrics at the Johns Hopkins Hospital, voices the opinion of many experts when he says:

There is no person in the community who can be of equal assistance in the prevention and cure of diseases among infants, to the trained nurse. . . . From considerable experience in milk-station work, I am glad to acknowledge that fully one-half of the benefits from the distribution of pure milk to babies, comes directly or indirectly through the instruction and friendly visiting of nurses.²

In the recent Conference of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, practically every paper emphasizes

¹ *Report of International Congress of School Hygiene*, 96.

² *Visiting Nurses' Quarterly* (Cleveland, July, 1910).

the absolute necessity of the nurse's teaching in any adequate campaign against infant mortality.

In summer, the school nurses employed by the Board of Health in New York are distributed through the various districts of the city, co-operating with the nurses of several other organizations in teaching the mothers and caring for the health of babies. They visit each child whose birth has been reported by a midwife, inquire into conditions, especially in reference to eye-infections, and instruct the mother in the care of the baby, including hygiene, feeding, clothing, bathing, and the value of fresh air. Repeated visits are made to see that these instructions are followed. When it is considered that over 45 per cent of the births in New York City are attended by midwives, usually of the most ignorant type, the magnitude of the work will be realized. Dr. Darlington reports:

The midwives soon learned that the nurses were visiting their cases, and manifested great interest. They informed the mother that the nurse would call, and that her instructions must be carefully obeyed; they sought instruction for themselves and followed the methods advised, and the reports of improved asepsis and better care on their part can be counted as not the least of the results of the nurse's work.

This year the nurses have made a total of 106,772 visits, 770 sick babies have been treated by the Department of Medical Inspection, with a total of 1,850 visits. 4,888 cases have been referred to other agencies of the Conference for aid or treatment.

I quote from a personal letter from Dr. Josephine Baker, who is the head of the Department of Child Hygiene under the Board of Health, and who has direct control of all this work.

Nurses are assigned to various recreation centers, milk depots, and diet kitchens throughout the city, and at these centers, in connection with the doctor who is also assigned to this duty, they hold clinics for the instruction of mothers. This work is carried on wholly with the idea of prevention of the diseases of infancy, particularly the gastro-intestinal diseases. If sick children are found they are cared for by the nurse acting under instructions of a department physician. I am glad of the opportunity to heartily commend the work of the nurses in this department. I consider it a most valuable feature of the work the department has done in preventive medicine, and that it opens a large field for the trained nurse. During the past summer, including the months of June, July, August, and September, 3,383 children under two years of age died from diarrhoeal diseases. During the summer

of 1908, the same months, 4,180 children died. This reduction is undoubtedly due in a large part to the campaign of education which has been carried on so persistently during the past year.

In Philadelphia results showed 36 per cent less infant mortality in the districts covered by the municipal nurses than in the rest of the city as compared with the preceding year, notwithstanding that the summer was the most trying one in thirteen years.¹

The plan for "little mothers'" classes in the schools of New York was an extension of the work for the prevention of infant mortality. The classes are started in early summer and are continued through the holidays. The older girls, and sometimes the boys, who are in charge of babies at home, join the "little mothers'" clubs, and there is considerable competition among them, for as yet there is a restricted membership. A girl who is not so fortunate as to possess a baby adopts her neighbor's so she may qualify for membership. Talks are given by the doctor or nurse and a real live baby is secured if possible for the demonstrations. The children show the greatest enthusiasm over the bathing and feeding and caring for the baby, and carry out their instructions very faithfully, often in the face of much good-natured protestations from their mothers and the neighbors. But the foreign peoples have great respect for the wisdom of the public school, and where the "little mothers" are taking command, pickles and sauerkraut are disappearing very gradually from the baby's rations and, at the first sign of illness, it is hurried to the nearest milk station or dispensary for expert advice.

It is significant that a corps of school nurses should have been so largely identified with this great work of child-saving. It points to an extension of their functions which will enable the school to "begin early" in preparing its pupils for education. There is some indication that the cities are waking up to the economic significance of this movement.

In New York City we have asked for and hope to receive an appropriation sufficient to employ a staff of nurses large enough to continue this work throughout the year. It is an economic truism that the saving of life and the preservation of health offers greater value to the state than can be gained in any other way. Governments must conserve the health of the babies and the

¹ Paper by Dr. Joseph S. Neff at the Conference of Infant Mortality in Baltimore, 1910.

children if they are looking to the future and virility of their citizens, and money, time, and effort can be expended in no more worthy purpose.¹

In Boston, where medical inspection is under the Board of Education, the nurses are detailed for playground work during the summer. Sometimes they take parties of children to the country or seashore, and in other ways look after their physical welfare. In every city they co-operate with the visiting nurses' societies, milk stations, summer camps, and other social organizations.

THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF THE VISITING NURSE

The wide possibilities of the work in the family and the co-operation with other social forces is indicated in an extract from a paper on "The Visiting Nurse":

I ought to speak too of the great indirect benefit to the community of a visiting nurse who is alert to render all possible services. As she comes to know a family well, she can often put her finger on just the economic or sanitary shortcoming of that family which keeps them poor or makes them sick. She is able to point out the folly of the cut-throat chattel mortgage; the grocery credit-book; the unnecessary furniture purchased so dearly on the alluring instalment plan; the ruinous economy of living in dark rooms or amid insanitary surroundings because "the rent is so cheap"; the suicidal policy of taking the children prematurely out of school to put them to work.

She reports to the charities organization headquarters cases of destitution or of lack of employment, . . . violations of sanitary regulations, and violations of the child-labor law.²

Again Miss Wald says:

But the nurse has been more generally accepted as the conveyor of education to the individual, the interpreter of the movement to the people, the guardian of the parents and, indirectly through her supervision of them, the policeman for the community. The educational value of the technically trained and socially aroused nurse is of great importance, but her best social value lies not primarily in her office as a carrier of education, but in the clearness and force with which she makes known and understood the patients' accompanying disease of poverty. Teaching individual hygiene, impressing upon the poor consumptive the last word of science upon the healing value of sunshine, importance of limited hours of labor, good food, etc., would many times appear to be cruelly sardonic were it not for the confidence that she

¹ Dr. Darlington, Address to the Woman's Municipal League, January, 1910.

² Caroline B. Crane, *Charities and the Commons* (April 7, 1906).

(the nurse) is playing her part to urge on the regeneration of living, housing, child-protective and wage conditions. No one sees as well as she—not even the physician—all the misery, the heroic struggles, the ignorance and superstition in the double struggle against poverty and illness. Her force must be tested by her clearness in making these conditions known, as well as by her intelligence in caring for her patients and by her value as a teacher.²

A very interesting demonstration of the economic value of the visiting nurse's services has been given during the past two years in New York. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has been instituting a plan of working men's insurance under Mr. Lee Frankel, who was formerly head of the Hebrew Charities. Miss Wald, of the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement, quickly saw the possibilities in the weekly visiting of the insurance companies' collectors, and asked for the co-operation of the company in reporting cases of illness found in these homes. This led to an arrangement between the company and the settlement, by which the company paid at the rate of so much per visit for all attendance on its policy holders. A very complete system was arranged and the results carefully tabulated for one year. They were convinced that nursing care and the constant instruction of the visiting nurses would effect a decrease in the morbidity rate and enable policy-holders to get to work sooner and keep in better condition. It proved to be *an economic gain* to the insurance company and the system has already been established in a great many other cities. Other progressive organizations, department stores, factories, etc., engage nurses not so much to care for sick employees as to look after their comfort and well-being, to tell them how to care for themselves and to *keep them well*. This is not a philanthropy—it is a business proposition.

IS THIS NURSING WORK? FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE'S CONCEPTION OF NURSING

It has been noted that in all this preventive and remedial work the services of the nurse as *teacher* and *social worker* are held to be of supreme importance. She has been so closely associated in the public mind with the actual bedside treatment of the sick, that this new work is viewed as something of an anomaly. But Florence Nightingale saw it clearly from the first. As the founder of trained nursing and herself the great-

² Lillian D. Wald, "Educational Value and Social Significance of the Trained Nurse in the Tuberculosis Campaign," *Report of Congress on Tuberculosis*, III, 632-38.

est nurse—as she was one of the most far-sighted of philanthropists, sanitarians, and social economists of any age—it might be well to consider her conception of “Nursing.”

The very elements of what constitutes good nursing are as little understood for the well as for the sick. The same laws of health or of nursing, for they are in reality the same, obtain among the well as among the sick. The breaking of them produces only less violent consequences among the former than among the latter, and this sometimes, not always.²

“Health-nursing” she calls it in distinction to “sick-nursing.” She was one of the first to preach the gospel of fresh air. How she pleads for the lives of the babies in the close, fetid tenements where two in every five die before they are five years old!

The life-duration of tender babies (as some Saturn turned analytical chemist says) is the most delicate test of sanitary conditions. And Oh, the crowded national school where so many children’s epidemics have their origin, what a tale an air-test would tell! We should have parents saying rightly “I will not send my children to that school, the air-test stands at ‘Horrid’”!

Again she says:

We have tons of printed knowledge on the subject of hygiene and sanitation. The causes of the enormous child-mortality are perfectly well known, but how much of the knowledge has been brought into the homes and households and habits of the people—poor or even rich?

She speaks in fine scorn of the method of “sprinkling lectures over a community in the hope of teaching public health.”

The chief epidemic that reigns this year is “folly.” You must form public opinion. But while public opinion or the voice of the people is somewhat awake to the building and drainage question, it is not at all awake to teaching mothers and girls practical hygiene. . . . Is it better to learn the pianoforte than to learn the laws which subserve the preservation of offspring? . . . Where then is the remedy for this ignorance?

Everywhere it is the same solution. Education—the people must be taught, not in the lecture-hall but in the home. There must be a corps of nurses in every city and country district—“missioners of health,” she calls them. In answer to the contention that the visiting method is slow, she says:

What is slow in more senses than one is the eternal lecturing, words that go in one ear and out the other, *the only word that sticks is the word that follows*

² Florence Nightingale, *Nursing, What It Is and What It Is Not*.

work. The work that pays is the work of the skilful hand, directed by the cool head, and improved by the loving heart. . . . The point is, not "are the people interested in the lectures," but did they practice the lecture in their homes afterwards? . . . We have medical officers, immense sanitary works; we have not nurses—missioners of health-at-home.*

Most of this was written between 1860 and 1870 and the same points were repeated again and again in her voluminous writings. She was one of the first to advocate prevention, and it was due to her that many wide-reaching sanitary reforms were established in military camps, in cities, in rural districts, not only in England but in India and everywhere. And it was women, trained women always, that she appealed to, to take up this tremendous teaching-task, nurses or sanitary inspectors of the highest character, of education and culture to meet a need "as old as the world, as large as the world and as pressing as life and death."

THE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN SCHOOL-NURSING

But to return to the school nurse. The tendency at present seems to be toward a multiplication rather than a reduction of her functions. Some advise a rigid restriction of her duties to routine inspection of the most superficial sort, which means that she is to detect vermin and dirt and other extremely obvious and unpleasant things, but must carefully avoid any meddling with physical defects, and must on no account presume to exclude on her own authority a case of infectious disease. On the other hand, the hard-pressed medical inspectors are themselves asking that she should not only examine the eyes, throats, etc., of the children daily or at least weekly, but that she should assist also in making measurements, testing vision and hearing, and should in every way help the physician to do his work economically and efficiently. Dr. Cabot, of Boston, has pointed out that the training in observation which the nurse has, and her experience in the schools, enable her to discover even more quickly than the young doctor the first symptoms of the infectious disease. He states:

For ten years in Boston schools the average number of cases of scarlet fever found each year under inspection of teachers and doctors was 14. In 1908 under inspection of school nurses, 1,000 cases were found. That means that the nurses were nearly seventy times as good as the teachers in making

* Nutting and Dock, *History of Nursing*, II, chap. v.

the diagnosis of scarlet fever under so-called medical inspection (really teachers' inspection). The average number found each year was 86 cases of measles. The school nurses in 1908 found 2,285 cases, or about thirty times as many.¹

It is obvious that, for many years to come, the number of children under the care of one school doctor will be much too large for any careful and systematic inspection. With the co-operation of an adequate nursing staff, the work could be divided so that the physician's time could be saved for actual examination and diagnosis. I need not say that the salaries offered in most of our American systems, do not induce the best type of medical man to go in for medical inspection, or to stay at it till they become proficient. A few trained experts with a good staff of nurses will do much better work than a large staff of young, untrained physicians.

Hogarth points to the extension of the school nurse's duties in several different ways—the possibility of gradually replacing school-attendance officers by school nurses, the need of special work in connection with infants and nursery schools, the systematic treatment of chronic diseases in regularly organized and equipped school clinics, and the increasing development of fresh-air and special schools for defective and debilitated children, where a resident nurse would always be needed.

In any case the school nurse is definitely an education officer and not merely a district nurse or health visitor employed by the schools. Her first instinct and duty must be to promote the efficiency of school routine by increasing attendance and improving the health of the children. At the same time her work should be directed toward the education of the children in the principles of cleanliness and of healthy living. She should be interested in the simpler problems of school hygiene and should call the attention of the teachers and children to the necessity of open windows, to the harmfulness of wet clothes and boots and to other similar matters. Incidentally she should take notice of all sickly and ailing children and should endeavor, when necessary, to get medical assistance. Sometimes she may be able to obtain the help of voluntary societies for the purpose of sending a child to the hospital or into the country. By these and similar methods she may hope to train the parents, through their children, to aim at a higher standard of health and comfort in the homes.²

¹ *Ninth Yearbook*, Part I, "Health and Education."

² *Medical Inspection in Schools*, chap. xii, 180-81.

Of course in the question of clinics, there would have to be specialization, for no one nurse could possibly cover all phases of the work even in one large school. Miss Margaret MacMillan, of Bradford, England, who has written and done so much for school children, has recently instituted a school clinic in Bradford, where one nurse treats as many as sixty cases in an afternoon.

There is another field of school hygiene which will inevitably fall to the nurse's province, a type of work in which her hospital experience ought to make her pre-eminently successful. That is the routine sanitary inspection of school buildings. In a report made before an incorporated society of medical officers of health, in November, 1902, Dr. Bruce offers this as one of many recommendations for a system of administrative hygiene in Scottish schools:

As regards ordinary sanitary arrangements, such as cleanliness of the school-rooms, the clothes of the scholars, proper airing and heating of the classrooms, sweetness of the latrines, and general tidiness of the school and its appurtenances, we believe that such matters would be best dealt with by a staff of female inspectors.*

Of course in Britain there are specially trained women for just such work. Mr. Lawrence Veiller, who has done such remarkable service as head of the Tenement House Commission in New York City, pays the highest tribute to the worth of women sanitary inspectors as compared with the average man inspector in his department, and particularly to those who had the training as nurses. If hospital ideals of cleanliness and disinfection could be applied to public-school buildings, there would be a marked improvement in the health of the children and teachers from this cause alone.

The question of authority might be a difficult one here—whether such an inspector would have power to enforce her demands, and who should back her up, the board of education, the board of health, the school physician, or the school principal. Under one expert health authority in a large system, there would be little difficulty, but in a small system her duties and powers would have to be plainly defined.

The value of home visiting has already been sufficiently emphasized. It would seem that this work ought to be extended to include a more or less regular visiting of the homes of all the children. In many instances

* MacKenzie and Matthews, *Medical Inspection of School Children*, 123.

it is only the children who are fortunate enough to be "cases" who receive any special attention at all. Probably the greatest number of the homes present the same needs as do these that are visited, but conditions never come to light, and parents and child and school and community are all the losers. The nurse could be that much-needed link between the home and the school, interpreting the ideals and purposes of the school to the home, and discovering the limitations and adverse conditions which surround the children there—conditions which so vitally affect the best efforts of the school. As a nurse she finds out quite incidentally many facts that a social investigator would find it hard to secure. The experience of school nurses and of district nurses is that the mothers welcome the opportunity of talking over many troublesome problems that would never be discussed with the ordinary visitor. This is simply because of the nurse's training and experience, and it is as noticeable in the homes of the well-to-do as among the poorer people.

There is moreover a well-organized popular sentiment in favor of the visiting nurse which gives her special advantage as a social visitor. Even without the bonnet and cloak which has become so familiar and safe a badge in the lowest slums of the older cities, the "lady with the bag" is not only tolerated but welcome in the homes of the most ignorant and degraded. The visiting nurse has won her way, not without difficulty even here in America; but wherever her work is known, her position is assured. Even the new-come foreigners, at first so suspicious, early learn to know and trust her. Hers is a service that they can understand; she makes them comfortable; she eases their pain; she sees that their urgent needs are supplied. The school nurse builds on the work which these early nursing pioneers have done, and inherits the good graces and the confidence of the people. It would take a long time for any new type of social visitor to win such a place.

In regard to the teaching of hygiene, there will always be a difference of opinion as to how the subject is to be taught, and who is to do the teaching. It matters very little which type of specialist is engaged to do the work, for after all success depends on the individuality of the teacher and on his or her enthusiasm, rather than on special academic preparation. Responsibility will be divided according to the number of special teachers and officials available and their relative qualifications, and according to local needs; sometimes it will be the regular grade

teacher, sometimes a biology or physical-education or domestic-science teacher, sometimes a doctor or nurse.

I have attempted to show that the strength of the nurse's teaching lies in the practical application of simple principles to everyday concrete situations. This is not such a new type of teaching as it was in the time of which Florence Nightingale wrote, or the earlier days of school nursing. Honnor Morten speaks of the teaching in the London schools:

The poor children are being "told" things all day long. The nurse showed them, and because she was not regarded as a teacher, was the best instructor in the most important and most neglected branch of education.

The matter of sex-hygiene is difficult because there are so many factors to be considered in any proposal for the teaching of the subject in the schools. It is apparent however that the nurse more than any other social worker, except perhaps the doctor, sees the dreadful havoc that ignorance makes in human lives. That whole dark seamy side of life which is laid bare in the hospital wards cannot fail to impress any thoughtful person with the necessity of full and adequate knowledge for the self-protection of all young people, and especially of girls. Whether such knowledge can be given in the form of class instruction or not, it would seem that a wise and tactful nurse who is associating freely with the children could give much personal advice and assistance to the older girls in the school, at the same time supervising their health and watching over their development.

Experiences in girls' clubs in the settlements has shown that they do appreciate such instruction and often ask for it. They consult a nurse more readily because they know that this is such an everyday subject with her. Any teacher who can discuss such questions naturally and without self-consciousness helps the girls to take a sane and healthier view of the subject, and if the doctor or the nurse can do this without introducing the pathological element unduly, much good should result.

But whatever may be the difficulties here, there can be no doubt that every pupil ought to have some instruction on the subject of home nursing and first aid in emergencies. Some little work of this kind is being done in connection with some courses in domestic science, but, especially in the eighth grade and in the high school, it deserves

a much larger place in the girl's training. The subject should be taught by a well-qualified trained nurse, and should consist largely of demonstrations and practical work. It is an excellent medium for driving in the vital facts of hygiene and sanitation and developing the finer instincts of growing girls. The care and feeding of children comes in incidentally with such a course, and the "little mothers'" classes show with what a splendid enthusiasm and practical skill the girls apply the principles taught. The same kind of work is being done with excellent results in "grown-up" mothers' clubs and evening classes for young women.

With such an accumulation of needed duties, it would require the service of one nurse for each of our large schools, and this will probably be the ultimate solution of some of these vexed problems. Miss Margaret MacMillan, in a recent address under the auspices of the Public Education Association of New York, gave as her opinion that, as soon as the urgent need for treatment and nursing care diminishes as it must do in the schools, the nurse will be employed more and more in these other fields, but so far the number of nurses is so inadequate that their services should be available for those duties which seem most pressing.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL NURSING

We come now to the question of organization and administration. As has been noted, the work exists under a variety of managements - private charity, visiting nurses' societies, boards of health, and boards of education. There seem to be special advantages and disadvantages about each form of organization. Where the work is under the visiting nurses' societies, the school nurses are appointed from the regular staff, and have usually the advantage of a wide social experience. They know the city and the homes, are acquainted with all the charitable organizations, the courts, and the boards of health, etc. In this way a much closer co-operation with other social forces is possible. The board of education has no responsibility for details of organization and simply pays the salaries of the nurses. In Cleveland where the work is under the Visiting Nurses' Society, the nurses are employed as teachers and have been placed on the teachers' schedule, the amount received being based on experience and efficiency. Such a plan has worked very well in that city and in many others and is to be recommended for all smaller cities where there is an efficient district-nursing organization.

One great advantage of this arrangement is that the appointment of the school nurse is made by a nursing body which not only investigates her credentials but tries out the applicant in the field of district nursing. Many of those who apply depend on political pull to get in. They may have no aptitude for the work, not even a proper hospital training, and frankly desire to get into school work because of the short hours and easier duties. Rural-school nursing could be started in the same way as in Great Britain, but unfortunately rural district nursing is not at all well developed in America.

As to whether the board of health or the board of education should be in control of the situation in the larger cities, there seems to be no uniformity of opinion. As far as the nursing in its present scope is concerned, there is probably little difference. Should the nurse's duties be extended, however, and especially should she be engaged for any teaching duties, it would seem more fitting that she should be in closer touch with the educational organization.

Dr. Osler says:

The ideal conditions are easily defined. First, a central department at the Board of Education which would supervise and co-ordinate work throughout the country; secondly, at each school an intelligent woman, preferably one who has had experience as a nurse, whose duty it would be to carry out anthropometric observations at stated intervals, to assist the doctor in all matters relating to the hygiene of the school and the personal hygiene of the children; thirdly, a school dentist who would make an inspection of the mouths of the children and put their teeth in order; and lastly, the school doctor.*

When a regular instructor in physical education is employed, measurement, weights, etc., are usually under that department. It is important that there should be the greatest harmony and co-operation between these different specialists; this can be more readily effected where all health functions are under one expert head.

In his recommendation of machinery for health supervision and instruction in the schools of the city, Dr. Allen advises, among other features, "a staff of nurses to assist medical examiners to give practical demonstrations in cleanliness, to teach mothers the care of children, both at their homes and in mothers' meetings, to enlist the co-operation

* "Medical and Hygienic Inspection of Schools," *Report of Second International Congress of School Hygiene*, 468.

of family physicians and neighborhood facilities such as hospitals, dispensaries and relief agents, magistrates, courts, and probation officers, all to be under the board of education or the board of health."¹ For the county he would have "a physician and nurse to organize inspection and instruction for rural schools, to give lessons and make demonstrations at county institutes, to show teachers how to interest physicians, dentists, health officers, and parents in the physical welfare of school children." The hygiene of school buildings would also be under their inspection.

In regard to the relative number of doctors and nurses required, there is the greatest difference of opinion. Much depends on the amount of time which the school doctor devotes to his work. Often there are nurses but no regular physicians employed, and here of course the more pronounced cases are referred to home physicians or dispensaries for diagnosis and treatment. Sometimes the school is inspected daily, sometimes weekly or even monthly. The nurse may have 1,000 children under her care or she may have 10,000. Dr. Newmayer says one nurse is capable of attending to five schools with 5,000 children, visiting three in the morning and two in the afternoon, and doing the home visiting after school. Usually when she visits the school every day, she has time to treat only the chronic cases and those which the teacher and doctor send to her, leaving the routine inspection in the classroom to be done as she can find time. In London one nurse might have from 24 to 48 schools to inspect.

Only in the event of gross neglect or ignorance on the part of the parents are the nurses required to follow the children to their homes and to advise the parents. Their original powers for the exclusion of verminous children were severely restricted. If after repeated visits the children are still unfit to associate with others, the case is taken up with the divisional superintendent who summons the parents to the police court to explain why the children are not in school. The magistrate usually imposes a fine which is heavier for a second offense.²

Of the routine inspection Dr. Hayward says:

Often as many as 200 or 250 children pass before the nurse at one time. She detains them merely long enough to glance at their head, skin, eyes, nose, and general appearance, and then if nothing seems wrong, she passes them on.

¹ *Civics and Health*, 292-94.

² Helen L. Pearce, "The Place of the School Nurse," *British Journal of Nursing* (August 17, 1907).

In these superficial examinations, the trained school nurse becomes an expert in the detection of evidences of skin and eye diseases, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, suspected tuberculosis, and the first signs of various children's diseases. She is the sieve through which the children pass before being brought directly to the physician, and it is a matter of great importance that her training be thorough and her observation acute.

The work is carried on in the school station where all necessary surgical supplies and utensils are kept, and the nurse gives the children practical instruction in bandaging, dressings, and in various points of cleanliness and personal hygiene.

In Philadelphia the physician and nurse visit each school daily at a stated time. A room is set apart in each school for their use; the pupils are sent down to the office by the teachers and are individually examined. A card system is used and for each child a card is sent to the principal. Records are kept showing the date of treatment, care, etc. When the pupil needs treatment and no physician is in attendance at home, a paper is signed by the parent asking the doctor and nurse to take care of the case. For pediculosis, cards with printed directions for treatment are sent to the homes. Every day the nurse goes through one or more classrooms, observing the condition of each child. This is done with no interruption of classroom work. No excuse for non-treatment is accepted. If the parents are too poor to provide the necessary glasses, and the nurse has ample proof of such a condition, she devises some method of obtaining the glasses. In every case, however, the parents are asked to pay a small sum toward the expense and, by giving a trifle each week, this can usually be done. The idea is to make the parents feel their responsibility for the child's health and not to encourage pauperization. It has been observed that the effect of home visiting is to awaken interest and to develop the feeling of responsibility in the parents, rather than to make them more dependent on outside agencies.

In New York each nurse has from two to seven schools with an average of 4,000 children. She visits the schools in the morning usually, for routine treatments and special cases. As little interruption as possible of the regular school work is incurred. At a given signal, children whose names have previously been sent to the teachers go to the medical room to see the inspector. At another signal those who are to go to see the nurse are excused. When school closes at 3:00 P.M., the

nurse makes the home visits, ten being considered the average number for each day. One visit does not always bring results; sometimes as many as five visits have to be made before parents realize the importance of medical care.

The routine inspection consists of a class to class examination which is done systematically and regularly. The children pass before the nurse, pulling down their eyelids as they pass, the condition of the hands being noted at the same time; the throat and hair are also examined. In New York at present there is no time to do this oftener than about once a month. Miss Rogers says:

The number of children which one nurse can properly examine each week and take care of is about three thousand. Where conditions are bad, the routine examination should be made every week; in other localities every second week is sufficient.

The doctor and the nurse do not always visit the school at the same time. A code is used to denote the principle affections from which the children suffer. If there are any cases for treatment, the doctor leaves a card for each child indicating the trouble by the code number. In the same way the nurse leaves cards showing the cases which ought to be referred to the physician. The treatment in each of these type cases is very much the same. When children are to be treated at home, simple and explicit directions are given on the card.

The question of securing adequate attention for the poor child is still one of the unsolved problems. In Cincinnati they have special dispensaries for school children, and abroad this is being carried out more fully than in America. In New York the regular dispensaries in the congested districts cannot treat all the children who are brought by the nurses. Miss Rogers hopes to see school dispensaries established, where the children can be sent directly from school.

The hours should be arranged so that there will be no loss of school time for the children and where our own physicians and nurses will be in attendance. Every one then connected with the work should have the same interest and the responsibility could not be shifted from one division to another.²

A great many of the blank forms used in the various systems of medical inspection will be found in *Medical Inspection of Schools*, by

² Lina L. Rogers, "Some Phases of School Nursing," *American Journal of Nursing* (September, 1908); also *ibid.* (January, 1907).

Gulick and Ayres, and in Dr. Newmayer's *System Employed by the Trained Nurses in the Schools of Philadelphia*.

The following outfit is provided for the medical room in each of the New York schools. I may say, however, that the equipment is often of the crudest kind and quite inadequate in view of modern clinical requirements:

1 screen	Boracic acid powder
1 cabinet	Tr. green soap
2 chairs (1 high)	Collodion
1 table	Vaseline
1 scrap basket	White precipitate ointment
12 towels	2 basins (white granite)
Absorbent cotton	1 glass jar (1 gallon)
Absorbent gauze	1 ointment jar (glass)
Bandages	Bichloride mercury tablets

I quote further from Miss Rogers:

The supervising nurse has entire charge of the school nurses and is responsible for the efficiency and character of the work performed by each nurse in all boroughs of the city. It is her duty to make arrangements for beginning work in the schools and to see that the necessary supplies are provided by the department of education. She also regulates the proper amount of work for each nurse, making whatever changes and transfers are necessary, and inspects the work of each.

The supervising nurse receives all the reports, which she examines and corrects. These are sent in, one every day, one every ten days, and one every month. The supervisor makes a general summary which is forwarded to the chief inspector. The nurses report to her at a weekly meeting. In New York the nurses must pass the civil-service examination and new appointees are selected from the list. There has been much difficulty in keeping the service free from undesirable applicants, but standards are being gradually raised. The number of hours' work given by the nurse vary also, the extremes being from 8:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. in one city, and from 9:00 A.M. to 3:30 P.M. in another. The nurses in New York work half-days on Saturday, and during summer when they are working with the babies they take turns on Sundays for emergency calls. The home visits nearly always require longer than the stated time, and nurses find themselves often as late as 7:00 P.M. before they are through. The records have to be made up at night, and this adds to the work considerably. The average

salary is \$75 per month, though it ranges all the way from \$50 to \$100 per month. Supervisors get from \$900 to \$1,200 per year.

Dr. Frederick Rose at the International Congress of Nurses held in London in July, 1909,² dealt with the significance of the movement:

Great developments may be expected within the next ten years from the institution of school medical inspection. It will soon include school medical treatment in hospitals or school clinics. This again must lead to some form of general medical inspection before school age; and generally speaking, the question of the home conditions of school children, which lies at the root of the whole matter, will receive more detailed and effective consideration. The whole development of school hygiene is pointing in the direction of a ministry of Public Health, the municipalization of the health services of the nation. In a few years, on the basis of one doctor and two nurses to every 2,000 children, about 4,000 doctors and 8,000 nurses may be necessary. It is therefore obvious that the occupation of the school nurse is one of the coming professions for women. It is a reasonable, interesting, and important profession, with a fixed salary, a recognized status, regular work, and a suitable amount of leisure.

Women entering this profession of school nurses will be privileged to take part in one of the most far-reaching and important developments of modern times. It is beyond reasonable doubt that the coming of school hygiene will gradually effect a complete change in our views on education. . . . The development of school nursing will assist medical science in the accomplishment of its three great stages of progress—the abandonment of the first or primitive stage, that of the mere detection and cure of disease—the second stage, that of the prevention of disease—and the final and greatest stage, the raising of the standard of vitality of the whole human race.

THE PREPARATION OF THE SCHOOL NURSE

It is evident that this work is here to stay and it is probable that it will be extended into wider and wider fields. While not strictly nursing in the accepted sense, it requires the knowledge, the skill, and the training which is at present given nowhere except in the nursing schools. It is essential that this training should be broad, sound, and thorough. The school nurse should be a graduate of a recognized general training school, which includes special work with children, a good experience in eye, ear, nose, and throat work, and in infectious and skin diseases. She should also have a thorough training in everything that relates to nutrition and general hygiene.

² *British Journal of Nursing* (November 20, 1909).

There can be no question about the high personal qualifications which she should bring to her work. Such a vocation demands educated women, women who not only know how to do things but why they do them; women of broad sympathies and social understanding as well as practical skill. This enlarging field of nursing activities makes a new and direct call on the hospital training schools to uphold high standards of entrance requirements and to furnish a type of professional training which will fit the student not only for private and hospital service, but for the social and educational field as well.

But while the nursing school is responsible for her strictly professional education, much of the training of the school nurse must inevitably come after graduation. If she is to be an expert in her field, she must specialize on the subject of children, on their physical and mental constitution, on child hygiene and child psychology, on children's diseases, the history of infant mortality, the social movements which involve child welfare, etc. She should also be in touch with the educational problem, so that she can co-operate sympathetically with the work and the ideals of the school. From the standpoint of sanitation and public health, she should know something of the housing problem, of municipal as well as domestic sanitation, and of such laws and local regulations relating to them as will enable her to lay hold promptly on all the agencies of relief.

Sufficient mention has been made of the social functions of the school nurse and of the many ways in which she can be of service in the home and in the community. To do this effectively she must know the social agencies at work in her city, what they stand for, and how she can co-operate with them. She should also be in touch with the broader social and industrial movements, and should have, if possible, some fundamental knowledge of sociological and economic principles. In addition, she must know how to make her knowledge available to others. Her teaching must be simple, direct, concrete, and forceful, if it is to reach the children and the people with whom she deals. This requires some knowledge of the teaching art.

It might readily be urged that such a preparation as is here outlined would take years to acquire. Eventually some special training will probably be required by those employing school nurses. In the meantime the wide-awake nurses are doing what they can through reading and lectures and special courses, such as are given by the schools of

civics and philanthropy, the better to fit themselves for their work. The practical experience gained in district nursing cannot be overestimated and, as has been pointed out, the administration of school nursing under some such nursing organization would tend to secure a type of woman better trained and usually more devoted to social service. Much can be done undoubtedly through conferences of school physicians and school nurses, and general meetings with teachers and supervisors in physical education, domestic science, etc. Discussion on the main phases of this work must find a place in educational, medical, and nursing conferences, and will inevitably bring about a clearer understanding and more active co-operation between the rank and file of these professions.

The great demand, both on the part of the public and of nurses themselves for fuller preparation in all these branches of nursing, has been felt for some time. The need now is for an institution or organization that will give the preparation required. The various teachers' colleges, in association with hospitals and hospital-training schools for nurses, are the means at hand. The one significant attempt to meet this problem is that undertaken by Teachers College at Columbia University. Through the generosity of Mrs. Helen Hartly Jenkins this institution presents a one-year course under the control of the Department of Nursing and Health. It provides an experiment and experience upon which further organization of training schools for school nurses may well be based. Its distinct aim is to prepare "teacher nurses" for district nursing, school nursing, board of health work, etc. Its scope is much as outlined above, combining the social, economic, educational, sanitary, and nursing phases of the work. A high-school certificate, or its equivalent, and a diploma from a recognized training school for nurses are required for entrance. Through affiliation with the New York School of Philanthropy and the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement, the students have unusual opportunities for combining theoretical and practical work in a very broad field. They will also have the advantage of observing closely the methods employed in the school-nursing and public-health work of New York City. A group of students is already at work specializing in various fields. It is hoped that this type of course will prove serviceable in helping to solve the problem of the special preparation of the school nurse.

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF CHILDREN'S NURSES

MARY L. READ

We are familiar with the redundant statements and appeals of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Spencer regarding the education of parents in the care and training of children, and the oft-quoted comments of English and American pediatricians of high authority on the ignorance of mothers as among the chief causes of infant mortality. On the programs of such conferences as the International Mothers' Congress and the International Congress for Home Education there frequently appear addresses and discussions on such topics as "The Training of Nursery Maids," "A National School for Women," "Supplementary Education for Girls to Fit Them as Wives and Mothers." Yet it is perfectly patent that such education, briefly and practically presented, in the fundamentals of child care and training is rarely provided.

The phase of this problem with which the present report is concerned is the professional training of women for paid service as intelligent and trained care-takers of little children, either in private homes or in institutions. It presents the results of a superficial survey of the present situation, including the demand for such a service; its opportunities and recompense; the provisions for training; the meeting of practical details of curriculum, practice, length of training, social relations of employer and employee; and suggestions for future developments.

In European countries.—Among the first pioneers in providing practical, comprehensive training in the physical care and early development of infants and little children is the Pestalozzi-Froebel Haus in Berlin, where since 1874, under the guidance of Froebel's gifted niece, Henrietta Schrader-Breymann, a "mother school" and kindergarten of truly Froebelian simplicity has been maintained. A direct offshoot of this is the Sesame House in London.

About 1902 at Ghent, Belgium, a School for Mothers was started under the enthusiastic direction of Dr. Miele, in connection with the Bureau de Bienfaisance. This is part of the comprehensive system of infant hospitals, crèches, milk depots, and dispensaries. It includes

health talks to mothers (such as are now given at many of our own milk stations and infants' clinics in the large cities), and training courses for girls as infants' nurses, with practice in the crèches.

In Paris the Ecole d'hygiène d'éducation familiale et sociale d'enseignement ménager, which was founded by Mme Augusta Moll-Weiss at Bordeaux in 1897, removing to Paris in 1904, provides a most comprehensive course. One section is for professors and women of the higher classes; a second section for women intending to enter household service as nurses, cooks, etc.; a third section for women of the working classes, and a fourth for instruction in domestic economy and home management.

England appears to have developed more centers for the training of women as professional children's nurses than has any other country.

The list includes Norland Institute, the Liverpool Ladies' Sanitary Association at Liverpool, the Princess Christian Institute at Manchester, the Cheltenham Guild of the Dames of the Household, Sesame House, St. Christopher's at Tunbridge Wells, and St. Mary's Nursery College, London.

The reports and prospectuses of these institutions uniformly state that the demand for their graduates far exceeds the supply. The salary ranges from £24 per year for recent graduates to £50 for the more experienced. Most of the students are in residence. The training school is also usually a resident nursery where children from infancy to six months are received and their care is paid for by parents or guardians. Every effort is made to maintain a home atmosphere. In general, the course includes both theory and practice in hygiene, nursery cooking and laundry, home nursing, children's sewing, nursery management, kindergarten principles and practice. The length of the course varies from three months to one year. There is no salary during such training, but a fee is charged to cover tuition and living, averaging from £3½ to about £6 per month, according to the particular school. "Lady nurses for children," "children's nurses," "nursery nurses," "nursery governesses" are different terms there used for the same profession. All of these schools recognize both the physical and the spiritual nature of the child, and the need of training for the care of the child's physical, mental, and moral development.

In the United States.—The training in this country has been chiefly for "infants' nurses," and "nursery maids," and the training has been

done almost wholly by babies' hospitals. The Babies' Hospital of New York City has maintained such a course for about twenty years. The course includes six months in the hospital, with instruction in infant hygiene, care and feeding, the rudiments of kindergarten work, and ward duty in the care of sick and convalescent children; two months are then spent on probation in private families before a certificate is granted. Nurses receive \$7 a month during training, and \$25 per month after graduation during the first year, usually rising to \$30 per month thereafter. About thirty-five such nurses are trained annually, and the demand is often for one thousand in the same period. The requirements for admission are good health, good references, and ability to read. Married women and widows are not received. Most of the girls are from twenty to twenty-five years of age. The applications for admission are so numerous that girls frequently have to wait six months after acceptance before they can enter. These girls seldom have more than a common-school education. In the families of employers they are ranked as domestic servants, called by their first names, and have their meals in the kitchen with the other servants; they usually sleep either in the children's or the cook's room. Dr. Holt has expressed the opinion that young women of better education and personality will not enter training courses for nursery maids, because of this social relation to the family.

Similar training schools are reported to be conducted at the following institutions: St. Christopher's Hospital, Brooklyn; Nursery and Child's Hospital, New York City; The Babies' Hospital, Newark, N.J.; St. Margaret's Home, Albany; Infants' Hospital, Boston; The Pittsburgh Home for Babies, Pittsburgh, Pa.

A course for nursery maids that was started in connection with the kindergarten training school at Pratt Institute some years ago was abandoned because the young women who entered, if they were of desirable intelligence and personality, usually concluded by taking the entire kindergarten's course.

A course for "kindergarten nurses" was started by the Y.W.C.A. of Harlem, New York City, in 1906, but was later abandoned—for what reason it has been impossible to learn.

An attempt was made some years ago to train nursery maids in connection with the day nursery of Neighborhood House, Buffalo, but this also was abandoned for some unknown reason.

The writer has been unable to learn of any training course in this country similar to that offered by the English schools.

REPORT OF A PRELIMINARY STUDY ON THE NURSEMAID PROBLEM
CONDUCTED IN NEW YORK CITY, 1910

The study took up the problem of the nursemaid from the standpoint of: (1) the employer; (2) the employee; (3) the employment agency; (4) the nursemaid training school; (5) the observer of nursemaids in parks and boulevards. Questionnaire blanks were arranged for employer, employee, and observer. Interviews were held with managers of employment agencies, directors of training courses, applicants for nursemaid positions. Advertisements were inserted in the Sunday papers both for employment and for nursemaids; postcards were sent to persons advertising for nursemaid positions; advertisements for nursemaid and for mother's helper were inserted in the *Outlook*. The returns from these questionnaires, interviews, and advertisements are too few to draw final conclusions, but they at least give an insight into the situation.

Only twelve replies were received from employers. Seven of these found no difficulty in securing the kind of nursemaid they found satisfactory; five others did. Only one employer paid less than \$20 monthly, some as high as \$40. With one exception, the nursemaid was treated as a servant, was called by her first name, had her meals in the kitchen with the other servants, usually was on duty from 7 A.M. to 7 P.M. with a half-day off on alternate Sundays and Thursdays. The qualifications specified as necessary (given in the order of their frequency in replies) were cleanliness, neatness, honesty, politeness, faithfulness in duties, fondness for children.

The applicants interviewed at employment agencies were all girls of very limited intelligence and training, and at several agencies the investigator waited all the morning without a single applicant for such a position appearing. The girls interviewed wanted \$18 to \$30 monthly, and were willing to assist in household work, but objected to wearing a uniform. Some of the employment agencies when questioned directly said they had difficulty in finding suitable nursemaids; others reported no difficulty in supplying the demand, but stated that the training consisted only of experience in previous households. The employment department of the Charity Organization Society reported a great demand

for young girls to "mind the baby," at \$12 to \$15 a month. The employment department of the Young Women's Christian Association reported that they did not register nursemaids "nor other domestic servants," but that they had calls for nursery governesses and for mothers' helpers. The "nursery governess" is understood by them to be a young woman of superior breeding whose influence on the children is refining; she sometimes has also the physical care of the children, but in some families this is done by the mother or by a nursemaid. The greatest demand is for the English trained nursery governesses, and after that for Hanoverian or French. The "mother's helper" they defined as intermediate in social rank and responsibilities between the nursemaid and the nursery governess.

Postcards were sent for about two weeks to all applicants for nursemaid positions advertising in the chief city dailies, but only one in five came for an interview, and these were chiefly the uneducated, untrained type. The responses to advertisements inserted in the daily papers were equally unsatisfactory. Two advertisements were inserted in the same issue of the *Outlook*, one for a nursemaid, the other for a mother's helper. One reply was received for the former, and twenty for the latter. These twenty deserve analysis. One was English, the others American, chiefly from the eastern states. Three were trained hospital nurses, four were college women, and seven more had a high-school education, one was a teacher, four were nursery governesses, two were nurses, and twelve others reported experience in the care of children. Many specified willingness to help with sewing or light household duties. The wages requested were from \$20 to \$30 monthly.

Only twelve questionnaire blanks were returned from observations of nurses; six of these reported no adverse criticisms, one reported unseemly conduct, three ill-treatment, and two neglect. The blank was so prepared that any adverse criticism had to be based upon an actual concrete case, with particulars, on the date the observation was made.

The directors of two of the training schools for nursery maids (connected with hospitals) were interviewed. They both stated that the demand for their graduates exceeded the supply, and that the applications for admission were far in excess of their facilities for training. Their students are chiefly young girls of only common-school education. One of the physicians longest connected with such training expresses the opinion that it can be conducted equally well in co-operation with day

nurseries and kindergartens; but that because of the social status of the nursemaid in the family it would be difficult to find young women of the desired education and personality to take the training.

A study of some fifty day nurseries in one of our largest cities reveals that much less than half of the care-takers, infants' nurses, or matrons are trained for the physical or mental care of the child. Inspection of the curriculum of kindergarten training schools indicates that few of them give instruction in the physical nature and care of the child. A report based on a study of forty normal schools, presented at the conference of the Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality at Baltimore last November, states that hygiene is very impractically and inadequately taught in most of these schools.

The questions which this study raises are these:

1. Should not all training schools for teachers include due recognition of the child's physical life and its development and care?

2. Is it not possible by co-operation between normal schools or kindergartens and day nurseries or foundling homes to give such a practical training, and that in the course of a few months?

3. What agencies should take the initiative in this country in providing such a course for mother's helpers and nursery governesses as is now provided by the training schools for children's nurses in England?

4. Is it not possible by such a course to train great numbers of young women who would live at home and give only day service to one or more families, thus helping to solve both the question of social status and of nurse hire for the family of moderate means?

Following is a more detailed description of these English schools for which data is at hand.

At Norland Institute the training lasts for one year, the fees amounting to £74 8s., which includes living, laundry, tuition, and the first uniform. The first twelve weeks are spent at Norland Institute (which is also a resident nursery). Here thorough instruction is given in cookery, laundry work, housewifery, hygiene, nursery management, the making of simple garments. The student then serves a term in one of the children's hospitals, after which she returns to the Institute and receives a course of instruction in the Froebelian methods of teaching and becomes first an under nurse and afterwards charge nurse in the Norland Nurseries. This Institute was started in 1894 and about one thousand nurses have received the training.

The Liverpool Ladies' Sanitary Association began with non-residential training, but in 1908 opened its Residential Training Home for Lady Nurses for Children. Educated ladies receive here a six months' training as children's nurses. Quoting from the announcement:

The demand for fully trained, competent, well-educated women as Lady Nurses for children is at present much in excess of the supply, and it is hoped that in the future the profession will be adopted by an increasingly large number of those who have a real love for children.

If, as we all must admit, true education begins in the nursery, the value of the well-trained nurse cannot be over estimated. The L.L.S.A. have recognized this in drawing up their syllabus, and the training given is calculated to impress upon the nurse that the mental, moral, and spiritual characteristics of the child must all receive their due share of consideration, and that the nurture of the young includes alike the care of the mind and the body.

Special lecture courses by selected instructors are given on nursery management, hygiene, feeding of infants, and kindergarten; and special instruction is given in needlework, elementary cooking, and laundry work. Practical experience in the care of infants and young children is given in the L.L.S.A. Day Nursery.

The tuition fee for non-resident students is £20; for residents £30, including board but not laundry. Candidates come for a month's probation; if not considered suitable for the training, they may be asked to withdraw without explanation. Those completing the course are expected to wear the uniform—a dark green bonnet and coat. On the completion of two years' satisfactory service, a second certificate and the badge of the Association are given.

The Princess Christian College at Manchester was started in 1904 "for training ladies as children's nurses," under the management of the Gentlewomen's Employment Association (and later incorporated as a separate company) under the patronage of Princess Christian.

The college was established "to meet the increasing demand for ladies as children's nurses, and to provide the necessary training for a career which is so eminently suited for educated women who have a natural sympathy with young children."

A resident nursery is maintained for children of the better class only, the minimum period for their residence being three months, and the maximum age six years. Here, as in the other similar training schools, the nursery department is the vital feature of the training. The sub-

jects taught include general rules of health, first aid and home nursing, infant feeding, nursery management, domestic work, nursery laundry work and cookery, needlework, kindergarten games, drilling, etc.

Candidates are not admitted under twenty years of age, and must be resident in the college. Students are on probation the first fortnight, but may be required to withdraw at any time if found unsuitable for the work. The work is in charge of a principal, and under her are the two resident teachers—one for domestic science, laundry, cookery, and the other for needlework and housewifery—a hospital trained nurse in charge of the nurseries, and three outside lecturers—one for kindergarten, one for physiology, first aid, etc., and one for child-study.

In the *Fourth Annual Report* (1908) of the college are printed the rules for employers and for employees, covering such items as salaries, duties, holidays, testimonials, social relations, etc. Nurses are entitled to four weeks' annual holiday; are not to scrub grates or floors, nor carry coal, though they will dust rooms and make beds; are not to take their meals with the house servants (nursery maid excepted), nor in their bedrooms; are to be addressed as Miss ——; are obliged to wear the college uniform when on duty. A month's notice is required before the termination of an engagement. During the first two years after graduation the college finds the posts for the nurses, and collects their salary for them in quarterly instalments; thereafter they find their own posts and arrange and collect their own salaries.

The training consists of two terms of fifteen weeks each, the fee for tuition, living, and laundry being sixty guineas.

The Sesame House, 43A Acacia Road, London, a training college planned on the lines of the Pestalozzi-Froebel Haus, Berlin, was opened in 1899 under the auspices of the Sesame Club. As stated in the first yearbook, the general purpose is to fit girls and women more fully for the woman's life, and the second purpose is to fit girls who need to earn their livelihood, as certified lady-nurses to children, as kindergarten teachers, as nursery governesses, for whom there is a great demand, and for settlement work. Quoting from this same yearbook:

Many girls, unfitted by previous education to compete in the examinations of the day, yet in possession of gifts to be in no wise under-valued, are thus enabled to prepare themselves for a sheltered and refined life, which offers far larger opportunities of out-giving and of general self-development than the mechanical life of a bookkeeper and shorthand writer.

The work, both theoretical and practical, is so arranged as to center around the education and nurture of children and the internal management of a household in all its branches. Both resident and non-resident students are received. There are three terms of thirteen weeks each, the work of each term being guided by the season. Students may enter at the beginning of any term. A certificate is granted to students satisfactorily finishing the year's training.

The mornings are given to practical work in the house, kitchen, or garden, or with the children. This includes a regular course in cookery, house management, cleaning, nursery laundry, needlework (children's garments and mending), vegetable and flower gardening. In the afternoons, classes are given in nature-studies, singing, geometry, art, domestic hygiene, and house sanitation, Froebel occupations, educational history, principles, and methods.

The children of the free kindergarten and the Sesame Nursery House furnish the practice. A fourth term of three months, in the Sesame Nursery House, in the care and feeding of infants is required of students training as lady nurses.

The tuition fee is £10 per term; board and residence is £14 per term, with accommodations for twenty-eight.

St. Mary's Nursery College, in London, was opened in 1908, "to provide for the training of Catholic gentlewomen as nursery nurses." The college "provides an inexpensive training for educated women who have natural sympathy with little children." The training includes:

I. *A practical course:*

The daily care and feeding of resident infants and children, from a fortnight to five years old

The duties and management of a nursery (all the work being done by the students)

Nursery cooking

Nursery laundry

Needlework (cutting-out and making of children's clothes, knitting, mending)

II. *A course of instruction given by qualified teachers on the following subjects:*

The religious teaching of young children

Nursery hygiene

Child physiology

First aid

Kindergarten occupations, games, and songs

The principal, Mrs. Bernard Mole (Clapham Maternity Hospital certificate), is assisted by a trained children's nurse, domestic-economy and kindergarten (Froebel Union) teachers, medical and other lecturers. Quoting from the announcement:

If, as is generally admitted, true education begins in the nursery, the value of a well-trained nurse cannot be over-estimated. The training will also be of value to those entering upon the responsibilities of married life and to others who may not intend to adopt nursing as a profession.

Students satisfactorily completing the six months' course are granted a certificate and are entitled to wear the uniform of the College. The fee for six months' training, board, and residence is £36.

At the Cheltenham Crèche a three-months' course is given, to either resident or non-resident students, there being accommodations, however, for only four residents. The fee for three months' residence and training is £10.

The National Froebel Union has recently created a new section designated "The Child Attendant Association" which grants a certificate of practical fitness for the duties of such attendants, after training under conditions which meet with their approval and which are open to their inspection. Their "provisional scheme for training child attendants for infants' and nursery schools" calls for a six-months' training with daily work under supervision in a selected school, such work including reception and inspection of children for symptoms of disease, washing, supervision of lavatories, disinfection of garments when needed, first aid, organization and supervision of lunches. It also requires three twelve-hour series of class lectures and demonstrations on (1) elements of child hygiene and care, (2) characteristics of normal and abnormal children, (3) personal care, first aid. The training is estimated to cost for six months £4 4s. to £6 6s.

Two London kindergartens are now giving such training.

In a notable address before the Religious Education Association in 1907 on the "Relation of the Home to Moral and Religious Education," Commissioner Elmer E. Brown urged the establishment of special training courses for young women of education and personality to care for little children under the school age; and the consequent development of a new profession for women. He calls attention to the intimate relation between the moral education of little children and their physical welfare, especially their habits of eating, sleeping, and related activi-

ties which involve the nervous system. He points out the great range of requirements both of knowledge and judgment—nutrition, the prevention of disease, the treatment of minor ailments, the correction of faults of temper and disposition, the first steps in learning, the supervision of games, the telling of stories, the first hint of the mysteries of religion.

It is accordingly desirable [he adds] that in training for this service we should break away from the narrower traditions of the kindergarten. Many good precedents may be drawn from the training of nurses in hospitals and sanitariums, but even such precedents must be followed with caution. These things seem clear to this extent, at least, that the training should join theory with practice, and that the work must be partly pedagogical and partly parallel to that of the ordinary nurses' training school.

He suggests that the theoretical instruction could probably best be given in connection with a college or university, thus the more readily attracting young women of the desired preliminary training, the students having access to a babies' hospital, foundlings' home, day nursery, or other children's institution.

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THE TENTH YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

PART I
THE CITY SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY
CENTER

BY

H. C. LEIPZIGER, MRS. S. E. HYRE, R. D. WARDEN, C. W. CRAMPTON
E. W. STITT, E. J. WARD, MRS. E. C. GRICE
C. A. PERRY

EDITED BY THE SECRETARY

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE MOBILE MEETING
OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, WEDNESDAY,
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PREFACE

This yearbook is planned to include accounts of actual experiments that have been tried in making the school a community center, so that other communities may learn of the possibilities and difficulties of putting into practice what has already been achieved in some of the most advanced communities. At the National Education Association meeting for 1902 (p. 373 of *Proceedings*) John Dewey discussed very ably the theoretical aspects of the problem as requested, but said:

I do not feel that the philosophical aspect of the matter is the urgent or important one. The pressing thing, the significant thing, is really to make the school a social center; that is, a matter of practice and not of theory. Just what to do in order to make the schoolhouse a center of full and adequate social service, to bring it completely into the current of social life—such are the matters I am sure which really deserve the attention of the public and occupy your own minds.

The contributors to this volume have described in a concrete way the extent and character of the work carried on under their direction, giving methods employed, results secured, concrete incidents, difficulties, criticisms, suggestions, and comparison with similar work in other communities.

The secretary desires to express his appreciation of the work of the specialists who have provided the material, and of the large assistance rendered by Mr. Clarence A. Perry, of the Russell Sage Foundation, in organizing the program for the yearbook.

Part II of the *Tenth Yearbook* supplements this volume with a similar discussion of "The Rural School as a Community Center."

I. ADULT EDUCATION AND THE NEW YORK PLAN OF PUBLIC LECTURES¹

HENRY M. LEIPZIGER

Supervisor of Lectures, New York City

AND

CLARENCE A. PERRY

Russell Sage Foundation, New York City

A visitor to one of the evening lecture centers sees first two flaring gas lamps illuminating a bulletin board and a pair of quick-yielding doors, then he passes into a lobby, or perhaps up a flight or two of clean stairs, animate with a procession of babbling people, and enters a sloping, amphitheater-like auditorium or else a level, desk-filled assembly-room where a man is busy with rubber-tubes, copper-tanks, and a machine on a tripod which contains two eyes, one over the other, that look straight at a square white surface stretched wall-like on the platform in front. Or perhaps, instead of this bleached expanse, he sees some tables laden with test-tubes, retorts, and wicked yellow bottles, and near by a young man crushing gritty stuff in a mortar; or maybe a background of charts shining with muscle, nerves, and viscera, setting off an amiable skeleton swinging idly from a mail, and a boy with bandaged leg and head lying supine on a table among "red-cross" lint and aseptic cotton. Or in the place of this hospital and laboratory paraphernalia he may confront an open piano with sheet-music anticipatively placed. But always he finds a hushed audience, devoid of children, awaiting the terse introduction of the speaker of the evening by the official-like personage in charge. These are some of the things witnessed between 7:30 and 8:15 on a winter's evening at the school lecture centers in New York. A moment after the latter hour the doors will be locked and the door-tender beyond the reach of entreaties.²

¹ This paper is composed of excerpts from Mr. Leipziger's official reports supplemented by excerpts from Mr. Perry's *Wider Use of the School Plant*. Mr. Leipziger was prevented at the last moment from preparing a special paper that he had planned for this yearbook, and Mr. Perry kindly provided this material. The footnotes indicate the sources of the excerpts. — EDITOR.

² Perry, *Wider Use of the School Plant*, 200.

PHYSICAL CONDITIONS

There are at present 118 school buildings in use as lecture centers, of which 40 have auditoriums of the newer style, 30 have so-called assembly halls not used for class purposes, 24 have assembly halls consisting of classrooms with sliding doors, and in 24 of the buildings the lectures are given on the playground floor; of these 24, 17 are in Manhattan and 6 in the Bronx.

The playground floors are chosen because so many people dislike climbing up so many steps to the top floor. But these playground floors should not be used at all, as the ceilings are low and the floors are flat, so that those in the rear cannot well see the illustrations thrown upon the screen, and there is constant rising and sitting on the camp chairs; besides which, the halls are difficult to heat and ventilate in winter, and altogether are exceedingly unsightly. They are not proper places for the meeting of citizens who come to learn.

In addition to the 118 public-school buildings that are in use, there are 46 halls, other than public-school buildings, and these halls are engaged because in the locality in which they are situated they afford better facilities than those offered by the school buildings of the vicinity. Some of these are church halls. (Rental is paid for seventeen of these halls, while twenty-nine are given rent free¹.)

CLASSIFICATION OF LECTURES

Lectures have been arranged in groups according to subjects, each group subdivided into smaller groups. In arranging the various programs, closely allied subjects from the several groups are selected in rotation, thus providing in each center a curriculum of lecture studies. In selecting subjects for the lectures, the expressed desire of the people, the known characteristics of the neighborhood, and the previously arranged programs are considered. The groups are:

First Group

LITERATURE, HISTORY, SOCIOLOGY, ART

I—Literature. II—History. III—Social Subjects. IV—Fine Arts.

Second Group

GENERAL AND APPLIED SCIENCE

I—Astronomy. II—Physics. III—Chemistry. IV—Geology. V—Biology. VI—Physiology and Hygiene. VII—Industries.

¹Leipziger, *Annual Report of the Supervisor of Lectures*, 1900-10 (New York).

Third Group

DESCRIPTIVE GEOGRAPHY

I—North America. II—United States. III—British North America. IV—Central America and the West Indies. V—South America. VI—Europe. VII—Asia. VIII—Africa. IX—Hawaii, the Philippines, Australasia.

Special Group

LECTURES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

I—Lectures in Italian. II—Lectures in Yiddish. III—Lectures in German.

It has been possible to adapt the first and second groups to the special purpose of encouraging definite study along special lines in co-operation with college or university, and this method is being extended to all of the groups. Lectures in all subjects have been planned for the broad purpose of popularizing general knowledge. In the science group many lectures of a practical nature have been introduced, bearing on domestic science and industry. Lectures on physiology, anatomy, and hygiene have been arranged with the end in view of furthering in every manner possible the work of the Department of Health.¹

COURSES OF LECTURE-STUDIES WITH EXAMINATIONS

To encourage earnest study along definite lines the following courses of lectures by well-known educators were held and many persons have regularly attended these courses and have taken the examinations.

The development of fiction.—A course of twenty-eight lectures was given by Dr. Charles F. Horne, of the College of the City of New York, during the past season and examinations were given to a large number, many of whom passed creditably.

American history.—A course of twenty-eight lectures was given by Dr. William B. Guthrie, of the College of the City of New York, and examinations were held.

Economics.—A course of twenty-eight lectures was given by Professor Walter E. Clark, of the College of the City of New York, and for attendance and proficiency in examination at this course certificates were awarded.

Electricity and magnetism.—A course of twenty-eight lectures was given by Mr. W. Wallace Ker, of the Hebrew Technical Institute.

First aid to the injured.—Many courses having a direct practical

¹ *Leipzig, op. cit.*

bearing on human life have been given, chief of which are the courses of five lectures on "First Aid to the Injured" offered with the co-operation of the Society for First Aid to the Injured. This year the course was repeated in 26 centers by 12 physician-lecturers to audiences aggregating 17,616 persons and averaging 135. For attendance and proficiency in examination at these courses 780 certificates were awarded.

Examination questions used in connection with the courses in literature, history, economics, and first aid to the injured may be found in another part of this report.

Besides the courses followed by examinations, there were offered in 1909-10 one hundred courses of lectures covering a wide range of subjects, in many of which printed syllabi were prepared and distributed to the audience. It was the invariable practice of the lecturers after each lecture to hold a conference with the audience, at which questions were asked and answered, and helpful suggestions were given for reading and special study.¹

MISCELLANEOUS LECTURE TOPICS

Here is a list of titles chosen from the program of 1908-9: "Municipal Cleaning and Its Relation to Public Health"; "Housing in Europe"; "Goethe: Man the Mirror of the World"; "Walt Whitman and the Hope of Democracy"; "Mohammedanism and the Crusades"; "Uncle Sam's Own Story of the Declaration of Independence"; "The City Beautiful, or the Planning and Embellishment of Cities"; "How shall a Girl Earn a Living?"; "The Man That is Down and Out"; "The Songs and Basketry of the North American Indians"; "Applications of Electric Signals"; "The Life Story of the Honey Bee"; "The Treatment of Shock, Bleeding, Burns, Exposure to Cold and Frostbite"; "Life in a Coal Breaker"; "Real Cowboy Life in the Far West"; "Street Life in Paris"; and "A Trip to Central Africa." Altogether there were 1,575 different topics, covering the whole field of human interests, upon which the audiences were instructed and entertained.²

STATISTICS FOR THE SEASON 1909-10

During this period lectures were delivered in 166 lecture centers, distributed over all the boroughs of the city of New York. A staff of

¹ Leipziger, *op. cit.*

² Perry, *Wider Use of the School Plant*, 201-2.

708 lecturers spoke on 1,654 different topics before 5,196 audiences. The total attendance was 959,982, an average of 185 per lecture.

The increase in the number of courses of lectures during the past year was marked, and the interest of the auditors who attended courses of lectures proved that the desire for instruction on the part of a large number of the attendants is greater than the desire for entertainment. Several of these courses consisted of 28 lectures and were accompanied by quizzes, collateral reading, and examinations.

Some of the centers have become identified with definite types of lectures. For the last seven years lectures on science have been given each Saturday night at St. Bartholomew's. In other centers systematic courses in literature or history are given, extending over a period of years, so that those who attend regularly—as many do—receive the benefit of what may be considered a complete course of instruction in some one subject.

In centers where lectures are held twice weekly, the lectures on one night are of a more serious nature and on the other evening of a more popular character, so that all the intellectual desires of the neighborhood are appealed to; one purpose of the opening of the lecture course is to make the schoolhouse not only a place of instruction, but a place of recreation as well, and a community house in the largest sense.

Lectures in the Italian, Yiddish, and German languages, having for their purpose the preparation of immigrants for citizenship, have been successfully continued, and lectures on "First Aid to the Injured" and "The Prevention of Tuberculosis" have been made special features.¹

THE SPEAKERS

Lecturers from every walk in life are employed in this work. Besides a large company of professors and instructors representing fourteen colleges and universities, there are experts in city-planning, housing, and playgrounds, authorities on explosives, street-cleaning, and municipal water-supply, art students who have traveled in Italy and Greece, educators loaded with fresh spoils from the British Museum, distinguished scientists, eminent jurists, influential politicians, public-spirited physicians, and prominent citizens of all classes.²

¹ Leipziger, *op. cit.*

² Perry, *op. cit.* 201.

LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS AND OPERATORS

During 1909-10, 134 local superintendents and 56 stereopticon operators have had charge of the work in the various lecture centers. In selecting the local superintendents, care has been taken to find men who understand the spirit of the lectures, and who are fitted by experience and personality to study the intellectual and social conditions of the community, and to shape their work accordingly. Teachers in the public schools have been found especially well fitted for the duties of local superintendents. The stereopticon operators, men of long experience, have done efficient service at the lectures and have taken good care of the delicate apparatus intrusted to their charge.

LOCAL COMMITTEES

In many lecture centers a local committee co-operates with the local superintendent and the office in calling the attention of the neighborhood to the lectures and in making suggestions that will supply the neighborhood need; this committee stands ready at any time to be called upon to work in connection with this department.

THE LECTURES AND THE LIBRARIES

There has always been a close relation between the public lectures and the various branches of the public libraries. With the completion of many new library buildings it has become possible to establish new lecture centers in the libraries and to transfer old centers to these buildings. On the evenings of the lectures the libraries have been kept open for one-half hour after the conclusion of the lectures, during which time the patrons have been permitted to withdraw books for supplementary reading. In some instances exhibits, illustrating the lectures, have been prepared and placed on view in library reading-rooms.

It has been customary to print on the various bulletins announcing the lectures the location of the most convenient branch of the public library, where books on the subjects of the lectures are especially set apart for supplementary reading. This has resulted in a very large increase in the circulation of the books on the subjects of the lectures. During 1909-10, 86 libraries co-operated in this manner with the public lectures.

The following are a few excerpts from the many suggestive reports

received from the librarians regarding the success of the public lectures during the year just concluded:

"My observation of the influence of the lectures upon reading is that 'the books brought before the public circulate much more frequently.'"

"There was a noticeable increase in the demand for books on music while the lectures on that subject were being given. There is also an increased demand for books on the French Revolution, lectures on which are now being given."

"The circulation of books on music and travel has increased considerably. A number of such books which have never circulated before have gone out several times since they have been placed on separate shelves."

"The lectures on history stimulated the circulation of books on that subject."

"My observation of the influence of the lecture upon the reading of the library is 'A demand for non-fiction books of all classes during courses of lectures.'"

"There has been an increased demand for books on 'First Aid to the Injured,' physiology, hygiene, etc., and also on the books to be read in connection with the literature courses."

"There has been a lively demand this season for books on Economics as a direct result of the lectures given at the Wadleigh High School. We have been very much helped this year through the good book lists which were suggested in the syllabus."

"The class books recommended on the printed circular by the Board of Education were in constant demand and many books of travel circulated in connection with the lectures."

LETTERS FROM THE PEOPLE

Many hundreds of letters of appreciation have been received from all classes of people.

The following extracts are quoted from letters by those people who have attended:

"We live two miles from the place of lecture and only the severest storm keeps us away, and it would be impossible to say which we like best."

"I am the wife of a minister; both my husband and myself observe with much pleasure the ever-increasing interest taken in the weekly lectures. In a place like this, remote from places of amusement, the lectures are a great boon."

Leipziger, op. cit.

"I wish to state that First Aid lectures are very good and helpful, as my work lays around ship-yards and docks, where men are injured every day, and a little knowledge of First Aid often saves a man's life."

A woman seventy years of age writes:

"I have attended two lectures a week for the last nine years."

"It [Course on "Economics"] has given me the knowledge necessary to read the daily papers understandingly. I like the thirty-hour courses because I am working for a degree and can count the credits thus received."

"These lectures have kept me off the streets at nights, and have taught me something which would cost me a lot of money if I had to pay for them."¹

COST OF LECTURES

At the present time the average cost of each of the Board of Education lectures to the New York taxpayers is only \$26.05. This amount includes not only the lecturer's fee but the expense connected with the use of stereopticons, the scientific material used, printing, and administration. When the cost is computed on the basis of attendance, it amounts to only twelve cents per lecture for each person. A uniform fee of ten dollars is paid for each lecture, and, in spite of the nominal character of this fee, some of the most distinguished speakers in the country have appeared upon its platform.²

¹ Leipziger, *op. cit.*

² Perry, *op. cit.*, 207.

II. PUBLIC LECTURES, THE CLEVELAND PLAN

SARAH E. HYRE

Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio

The Cleveland Board of Education, in making "Free Lectures and Entertainments" in school buildings a regular part of the work, had two objects in view: First, to utilize a large and well-equipped plant (invoiced at twelve million dollars) a greater number of hours than those required for the routine work of the schools, and to give thereby educational advantages to the patrons of the district, as well as to the adult boys and girls who had long since quit the schoolroom; second, to bring about a clearer understanding and greater co-operation between the teacher and parent as to the work and development of the child in the schoolroom.

The greatest difficulty that school officials have in carrying out their plan of work in the interest of the child is lack of understanding of school problems upon the part of parents and taxpayers. Free lectures upon practical topics relating to the home and school, entertainments which bring the parents and patrons in large numbers into the school buildings are designed to give to the parent and citizen in general, a larger vision of the work of the public schools.

Parent and teacher are engaged in one work with a common purpose. They are striving to make of each child a good citizen. This means that every boy and girl through the agencies of the home and school must be developed physically, morally, mentally, and socially, in order that they may hold their place with others in the world. This work requires a close co-operation between the home and school, the parent and teacher. It involves also in many cases the education of the rank and file of the community up to present-day methods.

There has been much confusion in the minds of educators and parents as to where the responsibility rests for the development of these different natures in a child, but bridging over a long period of years when the school was held to account only for intellectual development, we come to that new era in education which requires that the public schools shall prepare a child to express himself in all his relations to life.

It was with the purpose of bringing the parents and patrons into

fuller sympathy with the teacher and the great work of the public school as an institution that led the Cleveland Board of Education to create this department of work, to be carried out under the direction of a regular committee of the board known as the "Free Lecture and Social Center Committee."

The committee, which was named January 1, 1907, to undertake the work, desired to construct some plan which would be permanent and which would be so helpful and popular that the people would demand its continuance.

The next point considered by the committee was economy.

Every school system has so many needs and wants that discrimination must always be made in favor of essentials. Salaries are low, buildings are insufficient, so that any drain upon funds for extension work is looked upon as an unwarranted expenditure and draws the criticism of the taxpayer which, if persisted in, will kill any plan of work however valuable.

The third purpose was to create a popular demand for the use of school buildings and to stimulate an interest among organizations to assume the responsibility for the presentation of their work in the various districts. Cleveland has one hundred and seven school centers, forty-five auditoriums, and twenty-two large lower halls, which are attractive and equipped with electric lights, folding chairs, and plugs for lantern attachments. Parents and patrons of each district manifest much interest and preference for "their own school," and it is difficult to get them to go to an adjoining school building for any kind of a gathering unless it is held in "their own high school," and so it became the work of the committee to furnish a program for each building having either an auditorium or hall large enough to seat an audience. The committee proceeded at once to test out the educational as well as the drawing qualities of various programs. The people had to be attracted to the buildings in order to find out that it was not only pleasant but profitable to assemble there.

In the spring as soon as the programs for the year are ended, the committee begins to plan for the next year. Letters are sent out to principals of schools asking what *had been* most helpful and what *would be* desirable for the coming year. Music and illustrated talks and lectures draw the largest audiences.

The next work of the committee is to send out letters to organizations which are active along patriotic, civic, philanthropic, and hygienic lines, asking them to co-operate with the Board of Education and to

contribute a number of illustrated lectures upon the subject in which they are interested for the enlightenment of the general public, and to name a chairman among their number to supervise the details of their own program. The committee invites concert companies, musical organizations, glee clubs, quartettes, readers, lecturers upon art, etc., to contribute to the work as a means of elevating the standard of music and art in the community. Men and women of prominence and ability in the professional and civic life of Cleveland are invited to speak upon subjects related to the education and development of the child, as well as the responsibility of the home.

About five days before the lecture or concert, a card of invitation "To Parents" is sent out by the principal of the school in which the affair is to occur. The children delight in carrying it home, and often it is necessary for them to translate it into the foreign language of the parent. Adults and pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are admitted to the buildings upon these occasions, which this year (1910-11) number nearly two hundred. In order to give the evening a local touch, a patron of the district acts as chairman of the meeting and is invited to do so by the principal. For patriotic lectures, especially, the seventh and eighth grade classes sing patriotic songs, and very often they contribute to other programs. These pupils will soon be patrons of the school and the work will then devolve upon them of seeing that the school buildings are at the service of the people. They are bound to be a great aid in the future social service of the city of Cleveland.

So great is the demand for musical programs in the various districts that the board has purchased a Victrola which is used in building up a variety of programs in connection with recitations, drills, etc., by the pupils.

The principal and teachers of the building are present to greet the parents, and often the mothers' club, in connection with the school, assists the teachers in meeting the parents in a social way. In carrying on this work the Board of Education assumes the expense for printing a yearbook, and invitations "To Parents," also for heating and lighting of buildings and janitor service. The board is further responsible for the proper condition of the piano and occasional lantern service. In most cases, however, each organization furnishes the speaker, lantern, and operator. Those giving musical programs have their own chairman and assume responsibility for the entire evening's program.

The result of these efforts has been most gratifying to the Board of Education. There has come to the work the complete co-operation of the community. Organizations and groups of people are requesting the use of the school buildings, as a means of placing before large numbers of people important information and facts which they are promulgating. The patrons have come to understand that the school buildings belong to them, and that it is a profitable, as well as pleasurable place to go. Parents and teachers have become better acquainted and consequently understand each other better.

The plan as it has been worked out in Cleveland has had practically no difficulties. The teachers have been most hearty in their support. The Social Center Committee has been most careful not to put upon their shoulders the responsibility for the success, either of the program or attendance. However, the enthusiasm of the teachers in the building has much to do with the spirit of the occasion.

The adaptability of the Cleveland plan of lectures to any school system, great or small, seems to be its especial feature.

Every community has school buildings. It also has men and women of education and ability who are well prepared to speak upon the subjects of everyday life, who would be willing to contribute their time and effort in giving larger publicity to their experience and deductions.

In school districts where the Board of Education is so constituted as not to be able to supervise the work, it is possible for a citizens' committee, mothers' clubs, boards of trade, or any other organization to inaugurate and conduct "free lectures," securing from the Board of Education permission to use the school buildings. One thing is sure, that the success or failure of the "free lectures," with all they imply, is due largely to the personal supervision of the detail of the work. In the Cleveland plan of "free lectures" a secretary of the business department of the board looks after the practical arrangements, while the chairman of the committee keeps in touch with the principal of the school and the needs of the community.

It is impossible to compare the plan of one city with that of another, for each one has its definite object, and I know of no other city than that of Cleveland which has as its main purpose the "co-operation of the home and school." Personally I believe that the time is near at hand when every school district will plan to use the school building for all kind of activities; when school buildings will be a common center for the consideration of all educational, social, and civic matters, and when the

responsibility for these activities will rest with the community and not with the Board of Education.

Perhaps there is no better way of giving in a concrete way the viewpoint of the Cleveland Board of Education and the attitude of the community toward the work, than by printing the "Foreword" from the "Annual Announcement."

"The Committee on Lectures and Social Center Development of the Board of Education begs to announce its program for the season 1910-11.

"In presenting this program the Committee is pleased to announce that the Board will be assisted in this department of the work by the following organizations and individuals: The Daughters of the American Revolution, the School of Art, Fortnightly Musical Club, Rubenstein Club, Normal School Glee Club, Young Ladies' Glee Club of Central High School, Glenville High School Orchestra, The Co-operative Employment Bureau, the Anti-Tuberculosis League, Consumers' League, Academy of Medicine, Cleveland Dental Society, Miss Gertrude Goss, Miss Grace Makepeace, Mr. W. J. Davis, Mr. W. R. Warner, Rev. Dan F. Bradley, Rev. Dr. F. T. Moran, Rev. Dr. Wm. W. Bustard, Rabbi Louis Wolsey, Miss Fannie C. Foote, and Judge Manuel Levine.

"Clubs and individuals are giving their support and time to this work, and organizations interested in various problems are anxious to use the school buildings under the direction of the Committee of the Board.

"The program has this year, as in the past, the elements of recreation and entertainment. Every lecture is supplemented by music and fine pictures, while every concert is designed to delight the popular audience.

"The programs as presented in former years and, in general, the methods of carrying them out have proven satisfactory and according to a unanimous verdict of the principals of buildings, 'the programs do not put a burden upon the teachers.'

"The topics which are to be presented during the winter are those designed to benefit the child and the community, and to give to the parent a larger vision of his own relationship to the work of the public schools.

"The Committee feels that it is fortunate in being able to announce the following program.

"The Board of Education in carrying on this work through its committee desires to arouse the interest and secure the co-operation of the community in it, so that the school buildings of Cleveland will always be centers where matters of general uplift and common good may be presented.

"THE COMMITTEE ON LECTURES AND SOCIAL CENTER DEVELOPMENT
"SARAH E. HYRE, *Chairman*"

III. VACATION PLAYGROUNDS

RANDALL D. WARDEN

Director of Physical Training and Playgrounds of the Public Schools of Newark, N.J.

This paper contains a statement of the facts pertaining to the development and growth of the vacation playgrounds in the city of Newark, N.J., a city of 347,000 inhabitants, separated from the great metropolis of New York by the Hudson River and about nine miles of marshy meadow land.

EARLY DEVELOPMENT

The first vacation or summer schools in the United States were opened in Newark in 1885 and in the city of Providence about the same time, but the vacation or summer playgrounds were not begun in Newark until 1899, when the Newark Educational Association, a women's society, obtained permission from the Board of Education to open six playgrounds in school yards. They employed twelve teachers, and operated the playgrounds at the expense of the association for six weeks during July and August. In the beginning these ladies obtained donations of toys and books from several of the large department stores; the Pennsylvania Railroad gave them a carload of beach sand, several of the supervisors connected with the public schools volunteered their services, and some sewing and manual training were attempted. The greatest attraction at this time was the free trolley ride given to the children of each playground by the Association.

The Educational Association continued to operate the playgrounds with the assistance of a small appropriation from the Common Council until 1902, when it prevailed upon the Board of Education to take over the management and financial support of them. The equipment consisted of: one wooden swing frame, holding three swings; three wooden saw-horses with planks for see-saws; one wooden sand box, 16 feet square, with an awning over it; two movable wooden basket-ball goals; one basket-ball; a few rubber balls and jumping-ropes; a miscellaneous collection of books, blocks, and dolls.

Each yard had been in charge of two women instructors with little training or experience in playground work. Upon assuming control of the playgrounds, the Board of Education appointed a supervisor to assume the management of the work, and opened ten school yards and three park playgrounds. The supervisor found that as the playgrounds had been carried on there was little organization, no general plan of work, no definite aim, no intelligent knowledge of the methods of teaching playground games, and lack of attention to duty. The activity consisted mainly of aimless running about, so-called free play, except as a few monopolized the apparatus. The neighborhood children attended very indifferently after the first week of curiosity, and toward the end of the term the attendance dropped off perceptibly until it was a question whether the interest taken by the children in the playgrounds was sufficient to pay for the cost of maintaining them.

In 1905 the writer was appointed director of playgrounds, and with the idea that some improvement might be made if experienced teachers were put in charge to organize and work up a regular attendance, he urged the Superintendent of Schools to appoint a few chosen teachers, the very best of the regular school system, to take charge of the various playgrounds. He urged also the appointment of young men to instruct the boys in basket-ball, baseball, and athletics—hitherto a neglected feature with a teaching force consisting solely of young women.

The first year that the writer was supervisor there were twelve playgrounds with thirty-one teachers, and the total average daily attendance was 3,301, or an average of 275 for each yard. The next year saw the introduction of the new plan of appointing teachers of known organizing ability to run the playgrounds, and the addition of young men instructors to attract the older boys for team games and apparatus work. Fourteen playgrounds were put in operation with a force of fifty-eight teachers. The total average attendance was 7,101, or an increase over the year previous of more than 100 per cent, giving each playground an average daily attendance of 507. It has been the supervisor's experience that few physical-training teachers can equal the organizing ability of the classroom teacher who has had regular school experience.

Another radical improvement adopted was in the method of providing apparatus. It had been the custom to let a contract to some local carpenter, who made and erected the swings and see-saws, etc. After some unsatisfactory experiences with contract work, the Board of

Education ordered their own repair department to make the apparatus as specified by the supervisor and passed upon by themselves. This centralized the responsibility, and the board received better apparatus with less delay, and then had it taken care of after the season closed by the same department which was, of course, interested in its preservation.

After having effected the appointment of better teachers, and prepared for better and more extensive apparatus, the next step was to outline a plan by which the school yard and building should serve as a neighborhood playground and fulfil all the recreational needs of the boys and girls out of school for their summer vacation. The following plan was carried out step by step, not put into practice all at once, but gradually growing and expanding, each year seeing more features of the scheme put into effect. The teachers had to be trained; the Board of Education proceeded but slowly with appropriations to complete so extensive an outline; the public had to be made to appreciate and intelligently understand what was being done by actual demonstration of results.

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE

The features of the plan which have been accomplished and those which are being worked out are as follows:

I. *Yard and School Equipment.*

More shade.

Better surfacing of yards.

Elimination of dust by sprinkling.

Separation of boys' and girls' yards.

Better play equipment.

More athletic equipment (track, jumping pit, hurdles).

More gymnastic equipment.

II. *Use of School Building.*

For classroom instruction in sewing, kitchen gardening, kindergarten work, raffia weaving, folk-dances.

Library.

Quiet game room.

Song recitals.

Theatricals.

Manual training.

Cooking.

Clubs.

III. *For Better Instruction.*

More playgrounds.

A longer season than seven weeks.

One teacher for every subject taught in the playgrounds.

A Normal playground course for teachers.

a) Better-trained men teachers.

b) Better-trained women teachers.

A syllabus, or course of study.

Higher salaries for teachers.

Medical inspection.

Visiting nurses.

Attendance officers.

Teachers' daily plan book submitted to supervisor.

Daily schedule of work posted conspicuously in each playground.

Special supervisors to be in charge of dancing, gymnastics, athletics, industrial training, kitchen gardening, kindergartens, clubs.

IV. *For Better Apparatus.*

Samples to be submitted of all apparatus and materials before purchasing.

Advertising for bids on apparatus by Board of Education.

Specifications by the supervisor of requirements for apparatus.

The employment of a mechanic to take care of erection and repairs.

More permanent yard apparatus (galvanized pipe instead of wood).

V. *For Saving Expense in Maintenance.*

Special storerooms and closets at each school.

Inventories of supplies.

Special equipment to be made in manual-training shops.

Special equipment to be made in the playgrounds.

Development of the Playground City idea and the training of pupil assistants.

VI. *For Developing Interest.*

An annual exhibition at the park.

An annual athletic meet at the athletic field.

Soccer, baseball, and basket-ball leagues.

Public song festivals.

Public theatricals.

Local playground entertainments.

Annual industrial exhibition of articles made in the playgrounds.

INSTRUCTION

With this outline as a guide, the progress of the school playgrounds has been steady. Soon after the change in the appointment of teachers, the supervisor began his normal course for the instruction of playground workers. Most of the young women appointed as assistants are from the Newark Normal School. These girls are taught games, folk-dancing, and physical-training exercises two hours a week during their regular term work by the supervisor. In their normal-school course they are also instructed in raffia work, paper folding, cardboard sewing, and all the regular public-school occupational work. This is now augmented by a special course of playground work after school during the months of April and May when all applicants are brought together in one of the school gymnasiums and given concrete instruction in the particular games, exercises, and dances which are to be used for the coming playground season. The director of manual training also gives a series of special lessons for summer-school and playground workers. The great drawback, so far, is the impossibility of instructing the men teachers in the same way. College men, for the most part, are not properly trained, and as yet we have not had efficient service from the men workers. College physical training departments are not so organized as to turn out young men who have at their command a repertoire of group games, physical-training exercises, and marching tactics. A pertinent question would seem to be, "Why do not the physical directors in colleges formulate a definite textbook of physical training, similar to the infantry drill regulations of the army, and see that their pupils absorb and learn to impart some part of what has been taught them?" Such training, if it embodied some such working plan as the squad, platoon, or company, would at least give young men an idea of group organization, something which they seem utterly unable to develop in the playground.

USE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS

One of the greatest innovations in Newark has been the opening of the school buildings for purposes of playground instruction. Hitherto it had been the custom to have all the activities of the playground conducted in the open school yards. In the hottest part of the day the heat and glare of the sun drove the little children to the shelter of their homes. Meanwhile the school buildings, with their cool rooms and all the attractions of the kindergarten for the enjoyment of the little ones, remained

securely and officially locked. Indeed, the building was open during the morning, for from 8:30 until 11:30 A.M. the summer schools held session; but, after that hour, the summer-school teachers locked their desks and closets, and the janitor turned the key and locked up for the rest of the day. The supervisor took to the city superintendent the proposition to open certain of the kindergartens for the playgrounds, and permission was granted. Under competent kindergarten teachers this has now become a regular feature of the playgrounds.

Another subject which interested the writer was kitchen gardening. It had been attempted by the Educational Association, but very little could be accomplished under the disadvantages of a playground exposed to every breeze, with perhaps a basket-ball game going on in the immediate vicinity to the imminent danger of the dishes on the table, or upsetting the dignity of a particularly formal invitation to be seated for tea. Here again the need for the use of the school building was apparent, and use of the building was granted.

The introduction of folk-dancing for boys and girls was another powerful factor in increasing and keeping up the attendance, and to facilitate instruction the auditoriums or gymnasiums of the school buildings were thrown open, or if there were neither gymnasium nor auditorium, the desks were removed from a large classroom and a piano moved in.

Then followed the need for rooms for industrial training: chair caning; weaving; sewing; kite making; rope splicing; fancy work; whittling; bent iron work; dyeing; basketry; rug making; block printing; hat weaving, or crocheting. Later came the library room with boxes of books lent by the Free Public Library, collected and changed every week.

The quiet game room is at present in process of evolution. We have the quiet games, such as dominoes, checkers, crokinole, authors, States, Capitals, etc., and it is the intention to run this quiet game room on the club plan, allowing the use of it to each club a certain part of the day and making the club officers responsible for the maintaining of order and the care of the game materials.

During the playground season we have used the school buildings for song recitals or festivals, for theatricals, and for local entertainments and exhibitions. Up to the present time the Board of Education has not granted the use of the manual-training shops or the kitchens, but it

must be understood that these are opened for the summer schools which hold their sessions in the morning.

ORGANIZATION

Every year some progress in improving instruction and organization has been made. We now give a normal course in playground work as described previously. There is a specific syllabus of instruction and play.

For two years teachers have been required to keep daily plan books which are submitted to the supervisor. Teachers' individual schedules of hourly work or periods are posted conspicuously, so that the supervisor or the playground director can see at a glance the work for any given period. Nurses visit the playgrounds, the children are marched before them, and any child requiring exclusion or medical attention is looked to. Attendance officers make daily visits, and while attendance is not compulsory, yet these officers lend great assistance in special cases of discipline and in preventing loitering and mischief in crowded thoroughfares.

Our playgrounds now have an assistant supervisor who takes special charge of the physical training, games, and athletics, and a special teacher of folk-dancing whose entire time is spent in teaching and supervising this most interesting and popular part of the playground activity.

One of the great needs now is a club worker, and a skilled teacher to supervise and develop the industrial branches.

APPARATUS

The improvement of apparatus during the last five years has gone steadily forward. From the first meager equipment the list has grown until now it makes a lengthy inventory. Some of the special items which we consider of the most importance are:

Heavy apparatus:

- Ball-bearing swings, on galvanized pipe frames

- Set basket-ball goals

- Bucks (canvas covered; galvanized legs)

- Giant strides (rope handles)

- Stationary galvanized pipe gymnasium frames (to which are attached climbing ropes and poles, flying rings, horizontal bars, inclined and horizontal ladders, and sliding poles)

- Baby swings

- Stationary galvanized pipe see-saw frames

Parallel bars (movable)
 Rocker boats
 Shoot-the-chutes
 Sand boxes (small and large)
 Benches

Athletic apparatus:

Jumping pits
 Jumping standards
 Hurdles
 Cinder tracks

Light apparatus:

Flags
 Indian clubs
 Long wands
 Short wands
 May-poles

Games:

Snare drums	Oat bags
Base drums	Bocci balls
Basket balls	Short jump-ropes
Indoor baseballs	Rubber balls
Footballs	Rope quoit sets
Volley-balls	Pails and shovels
Bean bags	Ten-pins

Quiet games:

Authors	Dominoes
Battles	Lotto
Checkers	Nations
Crokinole boards	States
Picture puzzles	

Kindergarten:

Blocks	Gift rings	Paper strips
Colored crayons	Worsted	Peg boards
Paper	Paste	Perforated sewing cards
Colored sticks	Colored mats	Lentils

Kitchen gardening:

Clothes baskets	Toy irons
Clothes pins	Folding clothes boards
Covered vegetable dishes	Tables

Dishes	Knives, forks, and spoons
Dessert spoons	Tubs
Dish cloths	Handkerchief wash boards
Table cloths	Dish pans
Napkins	Meat platters
Dust cloths	Tea sets
Dust pans	Towels
Mop cloths	Trays
Scrubbing brushes	Brooms

Manual training:

Awls	Needles
Cane	Pliers
Coils of Venetian iron	Raffia
Hemp twine	Reed
Kite sticks	Snips
Knitting spools	Tissue paper (for kites)
Knives for whittling	Weaving needles

Sewing:

Blue denim	Scissors
Cheese cloth	Ticking
Colored print cloth	Thimbles
Drill (brown)	Thread
Indianhead muslin	White lawn
Macrame cord	Wool
Needles	Outing flannel
Pins	

Samples are now submitted of all materials. Specifications are drawn up and bids advertised for on all supplies for the playgrounds.

ECONOMY

A man is regularly employed by the Board of Education to erect apparatus, attend to repairs, and put everything in order for the next season's work. In this way the board has been saved a great deal in the way of expense. The saving of money in the cost and maintenance of playgrounds is a thing not to be lightly considered. Money can be absolutely thrown away in the purchase of cheap articles, constructed with no consideration of durability, a feature which must be considered where thousands of children are to use and handle things every day. Again, a great deal can be wasted by careless storing of supplies after the

season has ended, and in not having all damaged supplies repaired before the opening of the next season. It is poor management to nail up supplies in packing cases, to be left in the care of the janitor until the next season. There should be store-rooms and closets provided, where the supplies can be inspected, where they are easy of access, and can be kept in orderly arrangement. School architects should look out for the construction of these needed accommodations.

Some equipment has already been made for the playgrounds in the manual-training shops of the regular schools, especially at the Warren Street Industrial Grammar School. The pupils have made wands, peg boards, rope quoit sets, bean-bag boards, hurdles, and checker boards.

The playground children make their own bean bags, oat bags, dolls, kites, baseball bases, curtains for curtain-ball, folk-dancing costumes, etc.

In order to lessen the expense of teacher's salaries as well as to develop self-government, the playgrounds have been encouraged to organize city governments, and some have done so, electing a mayor, board of aldermen, police department, fire department, street-cleaning department, etc., and these departments under the direction of their executives aid in the manifold duties of playground life.

POPULARITY

That the interest of both children and parents has increased each year is shown by the fact that more and more school yards have been opened for playground purposes, and the Board of Education has annually increased the appropriation of funds. About \$18,000 was spent last year.

While the board has not as yet kept the vacation playgrounds open for a longer season than seven weeks, still it is worth mentioning that from November to April they maintain after-school recreation centers for girls. At these centers the girls of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, who have the permission of their parents and principal, gather for fun and instruction in folk-dancing, physical exercises, and games under teachers appointed by the board. There is a pianist to play for the dancing, and the spirit, exuberance, and delight of the girls is wonderful to see, a revelation to the mothers in whose school days such exercise for girls was unheard of.

The boys have their gymnasiums, their teams for soccer, basketball, indoor and outdoor baseball, all under the direction and management of a Public School Athletic Association.

In connection with the evening schools, gymnasium classes are conducted by regular gymnasium instructors. These are not recreation centers in the sense that the boys and girls of the neighborhood can go in and out at will. Instead, they must register with the principal of the school and go into the gymnasium to participate in regular organized classes, conducted after the best models of gymnasium practice.

There is no longer any question as to whether the interest taken by the children justifies the playgrounds. The attendance last season was eight times greater than in 1905, a remarkable rate of increase. Many parents visit the playgrounds with their little ones to look on or to help swing the babies. This is encouraged, and every week special entertainments or exhibitions are given by the children for the purpose of bringing out the parents.

At the close of each season there is held an annual field day when all the children of the twenty playgrounds gather at Branch Brook Park to participate in huge mass drills, folk-dances, and gymnastic exercises. In 1909 the American Biograph Company took pictures of the entire exhibition and displayed them in motion-picture views through all parts of the country to the great interest of their patrons. Then, too, there is great rivalry between the playgrounds at their annual athletic meet at Weidenmayer's Park, when prizes are offered for the winners of the various events for boys and girls.

Last year an exhibition of the industrial work accomplished in the playgrounds was exhibited at the Public Library, and an astonishing variety of articles was displayed. This exhibition created great interest, and hundreds of people visited it daily. Many of the articles made are given to the day nurseries and are of service to the little ones.

It is with considerable civic pride that I am enabled to state before closing that the school playgrounds are only part of the extensive recreational work done by the city of Newark. The Essex County Park Commission maintains most excellent playgrounds and playfields, and the Municipal Playground Commission has within the last three years undertaken a unique development of the community settlement playground.

IV. ORGANIZED ATHLETICS

C. WARD CRAMPTON

Director of Physical Training in the Public Schools, New York City

I

In the good old days when you and I went to school, three o'clock was the hour of happy release. We went out-of-doors to play, leaving the school, a place of punishment. Today, both the school and "out-of-doors" have changed. On the whole, the streets are still, from the child viewpoint, interesting and lively places to play, but they do not stimulate play as they used to. Child instincts are more related to "stock and stone" than to asphalt and iron. This, with many other things, has made much of our out-of-doors "no good" for play.

Just when and where this change is most evident and its bad results obtain, just then and there is the school building made over into an "out-of-door." It is our adjustment, often the best we can make, to keep play from dying.

II

Athletics are forms of competitive play. As such, they present certain aspects for our brief consideration.

They are a biological advantage: Physical activity in the child is necessary for body health and orderly physical development, and the main instinct which drives children to muscular work is the play instinct. If this is weakened by innate physical depravity, or stifled by the conditions of civilized life, a flaccid physique and a distorted development result. The individual suffers and the race declines.

Play is educational: It is essential in learning to live. The affairs of the adult world are all practiced in mimic fashion in childhood and prepare for living. This is vital; learning by doing and nature's course of study in play cannot be replaced by books. Modern organized athletics are the highest development of play and the practice which they afford prepares directly for the proper discharge of duties in the civic, social, and business world which are rapidly becoming more complex.

Play is a school affair: For the school must prepare for all of life. Moreover, it is usually the one bond that holds the children of a section or a community together. Play will organize itself on the block or street-gang basis and become distorted when it is undirected. The school would fail in its purely educational duty if it neglected to use the educational play series of developmental instincts for its own scholastic ends.

III

There are two forms of athletics, the intensive and the extensive. The first is the popular kind, where a high school of a thousand boys will have a team on which a dozen boys may compete for the school, or where three or four athletes will represent a whole college. It is the natural form of athletics, selecting (in mediaeval fashion) the "champion" of the group to defend its honor. Measured by rigid hygienic standards it is of little use for it merely results in the training of those who are already most physically able, and neglects the ninety and nine who need it most. There are other standards, however, which will appear below.

Extensive athletics are the result of the thesis, "If athletics are good, they are good for all," and is an endeavor to use athletics as one would use any other physical-training procedure, scientifically, in safe dosage, for the good of each and all, in due and proper proportion to need and ability. As students of the situation and administrators of educational affairs, intensive athletics appeal to our hearts, extensive athletics to our heads.

IV

In the fall of 1903 there met in the office of one of the members of the Board of Education of New York City a group of men determined to extend the training of athletics to all the school children of the city. The composition of this group was significant—there were school principals, superintendents, and commissioners, physical-training experts, social workers, and public-spirited men of financial ability and willingness. While its great aim was to extend athletics to all boys, it began with recognized forms of sport which were admittedly for the few best athletes. In the beginning its method was to make athletics popular, then to extend them to all. It held a meet in December, 1903, open to all school boys, and 1,700 were entered. This aroused the enthusiasm it

was planned for, and paved the way for the organization of a series of annual indoor and outdoor athletic meets—baseball and basket-ball championships, etc., to which over one hundred schools now regularly send their teams.

This intensive plan was pushed further by the organization of district leagues, twenty-three in number, and these held their athletic meets with the result that athletics became focused in many widely separated neighborhoods, and multiplied not only in number of competitors, but in their appeal to local community interest. The fixation of the athletic event in the community was regarded a distinct advance and the advantage was pressed: the individual schools were urged to hold their own meets with the result that 150 schools managed their own series of contests in the last school year. This was most satisfactory.

To sum up the results of the intensive form of athletics: We now have about 15 per cent of the grammar-school boys competing for their schools in baseball (indoor and out), soccer football, basket-ball, and athletics, and about 75 per cent competing once or twice a year in the district and school games. The importance of these results is very great. One cannot attend a school meet with its twenty or more events, its thousand competitors and five thousand shouting partisans in the balconies of an armory without being profoundly impressed. It is an exhibition of one of the most fundamental old racial human interests, inseparable from life, yet otherwise unfostered and hidden by the conditions of modern life. It is an instinct vital to the continuance of the race. Its suppression will mean racial depravity and its conservation racial preservation.

Of course, no one believes that the running of a single 50-yard dash does the boy much good or (since he has been examined by a physician) much harm. The good lies in the course of training which he has undergone, not the competition. Yet he would not train if it were not for the competition. Cigarettes, easy and semi-vicious habits, careless eating, and general unhygienic laxity are not to be eliminated from boy life by anything less than a compelling interest. This interest competition supplies.

The competitive impulse is supplemented by the most real sense of duty to the group. The boy strives to be the chosen representative of the school, and to defend its honor with his whole energy and enthusiasm. It is this that trains for patriotism in the *boy world* in a real and

tangible, *intimate* way, and its lessons become much more vitally a part of character than the lessons from the books.

One of the best results of athletics is the effect upon the parents in the gallery. The public school means something more to them than the riddance of an irritating boy-presence in the home, the deprivation of his money-earning ability, or the insurance of the boy's future success in life. It means that their child is entered in the contest of young knight-hood, striving for the laurel to bring home to the family, while the school has become the beneficent state that holds the lists. It takes an occasion like this to strip petty modern husks from King Arthur's children, whom we are, all.

Intensive athletics have their great social and stimulating function, but still they do not satisfy the physical educator whose duty lies with the weak rather than with the strong. To meet this requirement, extensive forms of athletics have been devised. During the fall of each year, most of the school boys of New York City "stay in after school" and in the open-air playground practice the standing broad jump, for before December first their records will be taken and the average of each class will be sent to the Secretary of the Public Schools Athletic League. Perhaps their class will have the highest average in the borough, and the championship trophy of Brooklyn, Manhattan, or the Bronx will be placed in their classroom to tell all who may see that the class to which they belong is the finest of its kind.

As soon as this is settled, "chinning" is started, and later in the spring, running is the competition. By this means, each boy in the class, regardless of his weakness or his strength, is stimulated to train. He trains not only once a year but three times, in not only one event but in three. This is an ideal plan, it reaches all boys, provides continuous training, avoids specialism, and insures all-around development.

Another form of extensive athletics is the "Athletic Badge Test." This requires the boy to make standard performances in three events, running, jumping, and chinning. There are two badges, a junior of bronze for the lower standards, and a senior of bronze and silver for the higher standards, and each bears the figure of the Winged Victory. To win this prize the boy must also qualify in scholarship and have a good straightforward, upright posture. Just 7,000 of these were won last year by 7,000 boys, who wear the badge of the city given to its boy athletes to certify that there is one worthy to bear its mark of distinc-

tion. This badge is worn proudly, and, I am convinced, with honor, for I have never seen a boy on the New York City streets wearing it who did not appear and act as if he had a sense of the distinction conferred upon him.

In reviewing the seven years of public-school athletics, one observes that the intensive form has been successful in making athletics popular and within the common ken and experience. What is more significant is the fact that extensive athletics have become possible and permanently established, and what is still more to the point of the present series of theses is the increasing tendency of the individual school to take up its duty, to run its own athletics for itself and its own community. One hundred and fifty schools in the city of New York have already organized and managed an athletic meet of their own, and this number will steadily increase.

While all this is true, yet a more important result of a similar nature has been obtained. Many principals have realized that athletics are valuable social and hygienic school affairs and return large benefits to the pupil and to the school organization as a whole. While for many this is the result of deliberation in whole or in part, yet it is also largely the result of pressure of a community and pupil interest which cannot be withstood. Schools have organized intra-school athletics, each class having its one or two teams in basket-ball, indoor baseball, and what not. The school becomes a league, an organization in itself of a thousand or more members, with more boys practicing and more teams in the field than there were in the whole of the city of New York ten years ago.

In these schools, which are many, athletics have come to their own and have begun to discharge their full and great duty. May their number increase!

All this training, practicing, and competition require the use of the school building after school is out. Teachers must also remain after school to train and manage the boys, and it is much to expect that when the day's work is done that they will "stay in" and devote their own time, which might be profitably spent in study or recreation, to the benefit of the pupils under their care. Yet the actual number of men teachers doing this work day after day in the public schools of New York City is over 700. This work has received some recognition from the Board of Examiners, who give credit when application is made for a higher license. This is right, for the practice in organizing fundamental boy

interests and the knowledge gained of growing boy nature are important factors of success in responsible educational positions.

It was recognized early in the progress of the Public Schools Athletic League that girls were as important as boys, even though athletics were not their peculiar and paramount interest. For these, folk-dancing and carefully guarded athletic events were introduced by calling together the interested class teachers for instruction once a week. These teachers learned the folk-dances and games, returned to the schools, organized after-school clubs and delivered over to them what they had learned. Over 1,100 teachers registered last year and hundreds of clubs were organized in the schools.

The Athletic League was formed to bring back into the lives of our children their birthright of competitive play, and to weld it into the educational procedure of a great city.

Its labor has been to preserve for its swarming citizenship the things most human and essential to companionship and living; its immediate results give promise of ultimate success, and success in these things is worth the labor.

V. EVENING RECREATION CENTERS

EDWARD W. STITT

District Superintendent of Schools, New York City

There has been a great tendency during the past few years toward the urbanization of our population. Statistics show that while in 1860 only 16 per cent dwelt in cities, in 1900 the number had increased to 33 per cent, and the census estimates of the present year prove that at least 50 per cent of our population dwell in crowded cities. The figures thus far show that some cities have more than doubled their population in the past decade. This tremendous urban development at the expense of village or farm life, has gradually been receiving the attention of educators and sociologists. It is a civic problem of great importance to determine just what recreative advantages should be provided by the cities for those who are forced to live in congested neighborhoods.

Many sermons are preached in the pulpits and long articles are published in the public press about the conservation of our natural resources. The protection of our forests, streams, and mines is important, but not nearly so vitally related to our future progress as the conservation of the young people who are to be the future citizens of this Republic. The younger children are well cared for in our modern schoolhouses, both as regards their moral, mental, and physical welfare. When, however, they leave school to go to work, and in our great cities they do so in large numbers at the very earliest legal age, the problem of their physical well-being becomes especially important. Too often, the owners of factories, in a desire to save all possible expense, crowd the operatives in sweat shops without proper light and ventilation. After long hours at hard toil, the overworked young men and women crave rest and recreation, which their humble homes cannot provide.

Most of the churches have not been alive to their opportunity to furnish proper facilities for caring for the great mass of operatives and factory hands from the close of their daily toil to their hours for sleep. It has remained for settlement houses to furnish some advantages for this class of toilers, and the work of Jane Addams in Chicago and Jacob

Riis in New York will always rank high among the leaders of those who have tried to improve the conditions of the young wage-earners. For years New York neglected its opportunity, but finally in 1901, through the efforts of private citizens who furnished the necessary funds, eight schools were opened to provide recreative activities at night. The average attendance the first winter was 675. In 1902, twelve schools were opened, and the average attendance was 2,657. In 1905, twenty-one centers were in operation, the nightly attendance being 7,266. Last year the work was extended to all the boroughs of our metropolis, and the average nightly attendance was 12,985. During the year, the aggregate number of men and women who enjoyed the privileges afforded by the centers reached the total of 2,165,457.

WHAT OTHER CITIES ARE DOING

Inquiry by correspondence with the superintendents of schools of the leading cities shows that little has been attempted. Boston had recreation or social centers, but abandoned them in 1906, owing to the expense involved. Private individuals are now endeavoring to renew the work. Rochester has had signal success with the social centers, the special object of which has been to organize civic clubs, using the schools as meeting-places. Lectures by prominent speakers upon social, historical, and patriotic subjects have been encouraged. The first attempt to employ moving-pictures in the centers in Rochester resulted in large and enthusiastic audiences. In St. Louis the only work reported is the use of school buildings for associations of parents, whose object is co-operation with the schools. Holyoke, Mass., reports no work of this character under the control of the Board of Education, though last winter one school building was opened as a social center under private supervision.

In Philadelphia social centers are established in about a dozen school buildings, but they are conducted by various civic societies, the Board of Education furnishing only the building and janitor service. In Chicago the last report shows two evening recreation centers, their general spirit and management being similar to those found in New York. Neither of the schools used for the purpose, however, has an assembly-hall or a gymnasium. The centers are conducted by the principals who are in charge of the day schools in the same buildings, and who are therefore especially interested in the social problems of the district

in which they work. The sum of ten thousand dollars has been appropriated by the Chicago Board of Education to extend the work during the present year.

The work of the social centers in Cleveland has secured the continued interest of the community. Lectures upon patriotic topics have been given in twenty schools, and vocal and instrumental concerts in a number of others. In the effort to secure a closer co-operation between the school and the home, a course of "Plain Talks to Parents" by prominent citizens has been a special feature of the work. In Cincinnati the gymnasiums in eight of the schools have been opened at night, part of the work being directed by the University Settlement and local organizations. Free choral work is also provided on one evening per week, and free lectures are given at three centers.

In Milwaukee the Board of Education has conducted three social centers which were well attended by young people from fourteen to sixteen years of age. Older people also were welcome to enjoy the social privileges provided. Among the activities were debates, dramatics, concerts, physical training, and classes in sewing, basketry, and music. Pittsburgh opened in 1909 one school under the management of the Playground Association. Classes in domestic science and woodwork, physical training, games, and clubs occupy five evenings per week.

So far as careful inquiry has been able to discover, the above cities are all in which the boards of education have permitted or encouraged social or recreation centers.

PRESENT PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

For the current school year provision has been made for conducting thirty-eight (38) centers, in New York City, twenty-six (26) for boys and men, and twelve (12) for girls and women. Most of the centers are opened every night of the week, except Sunday, the hours being from 7:30 to 10 o'clock. In the less congested districts the centers are open for only two nights a week (Friday and Saturday), thus affording no interference with the evening schools in session from Monday to Thursday inclusive.

Each regularly organized center is in charge of a principal who is expected to be a practical gymnast, and who has taken a full course in athletics at college or at some physical-training institute. Efforts are made to secure as principals men and women who are endowed with the true

social spirit, and who, by their enthusiastic love for the work, are real missionaries in the elevation of the social, moral, and physical standards of the neighborhoods in which the centers are located. No problem is more worthy of the attention of a Board of Education than the selection of the proper executives to be placed in charge of this work. The principals must be tireless in energy, resourceful in initiative, attractive in personality, indefatigable in the capacity for work, indomitable in courage, refined in manner, and above all, as Theodore Roosevelt once remarked, "they must love their job."

The selection of teachers is almost equally important, though, if the principals are capable and earnest, they will soon train persons of average ability to be satisfactory assistants in the work. Financial inability often prevents the appointments of as many teachers as may be necessary. In certain buildings, also, the architectural construction may be such that the playground or gymnasium is subdivided by walls or columns, and more helpers will be needed for the work. The largest center in New York has an average attendance of 963 pupils, and the work is directed by one principal assisted by seven teachers. As a rule, in the boys' and men's centers the principal is provided with one or two gymnasts, one club director, one teacher for the game room, and one teacher for the study room. In girls' centers a pianist is also provided for the folk-dancing and athletic drills. When baths are in use, a bath attendant is provided.

NATURE OF ACTIVITIES

Recreation centers, as they are now organized in New York, include the following departments: clubs, gymnastics, game and library rooms, mixed dancing classes, and study rooms.

Clubs.—The most vital forces in every successful center are the clubs. They not only give an *esprit de corps* to the movement, but they are also the means of attracting large numbers of young men and women who are interested in forming an organization with some definite aim. These clubs may be classified as: athletic, social, literary, philanthropic, and civic. In all of them the director of clubs insists that the members conduct their meetings according to the rules of parliamentary procedure, and valuable lessons in practical civics and self-government have been learned by the members of the 774 clubs organized during the past year.

In all the clubs written minutes of the proceedings have been regularly

kept, and the secretary's duties have been made of considerable importance. In most of the clubs there has been an attempt to have some literary work, even though it be of the most elementary nature. It must not be forgotten, however, that the great majority of the club members are busy at their arduous labors, generally physical, during the day, and the club meetings must therefore be recreative in character, and not so severely mental as to discourage the attendance of those we are striving to reach. Some of the purely literary clubs have done very creditable work, and excellent debates with other clubs in the center have been conducted. Some very successful debates with other centers, and open meetings of a general literary nature, have served to furnish a larger audience for the aspiring young speakers than could be given in the limited circle of the club. Probably the most successful public meeting was that of the Maxwell Civic League of E.R.C. No. 141, Brooklyn, at which an audience of over twelve hundred enjoyed a delightful program, the chief number of which was a dramatization of a meeting of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. If Mayor Gaynor, Comptroller Prendergast, and the other members of the real board had been present to listen to arguments advanced by the young speakers, there would assuredly be an increased appropriation granted to the Board of Education. Several dramatic clubs have flourished, and while the plays produced have been staged with great difficulty and elaborate costumes could not be supplied, ingenious attempts at realism have been made. A performance of *Little Women* given by the Louisa M. Alcott Club of E.R.C. No. 177 is worthy of favorable comment.

In the larger centers, an executive council or senate, consisting of two delegates from each club, has been organized. Their meetings, held biweekly, have done much to unify the work of the center, and to make possible more important club activities than before. Many of the clubs have provided pennants or banners for their club rooms, and have adopted distinctive colors and pins. In a number of cases photographs have been taken of the club membership, which in later years will be valuable souvenirs of the happy evenings the members have spent in their clubs. It is impossible to estimate a greater good to our city in the way of a broader citizenship and a higher standard of living than can come from these clubs, wisely guided by the directors and principals. In a few years the young men will have attained their majority, and will be citizens who appreciate patriotism as higher than party, and the

general good of the city as being the proper desire of every adult inhabitant.

Gymnastics.—Effort has been made to utilize every form of physical exercise possible in the limited quarters of our school playgrounds. In the newer buildings the advantages of higher ceilings and freedom from so many supporting columns have been contributing factors of great importance. So far as possible, the following program has been attempted:

a) *Gymnastics:*

- (1) Calisthenics. (2) Drills (Indian clubs and dumb-bells). (3) Apparatus work.

b) *Athletics:*

- (1) Dashes and potato races. (2) Relay races. (3) High and broad jumping.

c) *Games:*

- (1) Basket-ball. (2) Indoor baseball. (3) Hand-ball. (4) Volley-ball, center-ball, etc.

In girls' centers, instead of the regular athletics, folk- and aesthetic dancing has been the feature of interest.

In a number of centers, classes have been organized for the young men intending to take the physical examinations necessary for the fire and police departments. These classes have been very successful in preparing many men who have succeeded in passing the rigorous tests required. It is to be regretted that in many cases the interest of the men in the centers has ceased after appointment, owing frequently to a change of residence due to their new appointment.

In all matters pertaining to athletics and to dancing there has been no attempt to train specialists or star performers. The effort has been to encourage regular and systematic training which would lead to better physical development of the many, and secure a higher average of strong young men and women.

Mention should be made of *The Observer*, a publication issued by the young men of E.R.C. No. 188, and containing important items of interest regarding the athletic progress of all the centers. Several issues have been published, and much has been done by the organ to stimulate a friendly feeling among the centers. It is to be hoped that this experiment in amateur journalism may continue to be successful.

Tournaments and athletics meets.—A very successful basket-ball

tournament was held during the spring months. The entire city was divided into three districts, and by a process of elimination the winning teams were narrowed down to two in each class. The finals were held in the Twelfth Regiment Armory, the prizes being handsome trophies presented by Hon. Egerton L. Winthrop, Jr., president of the Board of Education, and City Superintendent William H. Maxwell. During the progress of the series each team played one game on the home court and one on the visitor's court. If a tie resulted, a neutral court was selected. The meetings so arranged brought the young men of different parts of the city into generous competition, and, while in many cases spirited rivalry resulted, the general tendency was to break down racial and class differences, and thus to make the young men better citizens of our cosmopolitan city.

The general athletic activities were brought to a successful close by a very enthusiastic athletic meet held at the Seventy-first Regiment Armory. Because of the very large number of young men who desired to compete, it was necessary to limit the number of entries in each event to three from each center. Strict rules of eligibility were also drawn so as to prevent any members of high-school, college, or outside athletic teams from competing. Principals were urged to limit their competitors to those who had been bona-fide members of the centers, and thus to keep out any who had not a clear right to compete. These efforts resulted in excluding some expert athletes who would not have been desirable competitors, and served to divide the prizes among the representatives of many different centers.

Suitable trophies for the center obtaining the highest number of points and for the centers winning the senior and junior relay races were offered by prominent citizens. A large and enthusiastic assemblage cheered the competitors, and the various cries and songs of the "rooters" rivaled those of a college gathering. Very favorable press comments were given, and many visitors pronounced the meet the most successful in the history of the recreation centers.

Game and library room.—This room should be made the most attractive in the center. It should therefore be well illuminated, and the chairs and tables provided should be well adapted for the young men and women who attend. During the past winter efforts at decorating the rooms have been begun, and very fair success has been attained. As a rule the game room is near the entrance, and it should therefore be made

a place of real attraction, so that those who enter will feel that they are cordially welcome to the center.

The tables hitherto furnished have not been entirely satisfactory and have not always been strong enough to withstand the continued usage. During the coming season, however, we are to have a number of very substantial tables which have been made in the Vocational School for Boys. They have been made especially strong and are admirably adapted for the game room. In the tops of the tables checker boards have been made of inlaid squares. This plan will save much time in distributing the game most used in the centers. The fact that the Vocational School can co-operate with a separate branch of the school system will make strong friends for the former among the attendants at recreation centers.

The teachers endeavor to persuade those who attend to learn new games, and not to be content with playing the simpler card games, such as "Authors" and "Battles," in which there is an element of chance predominating. Much valuable information has come to the players from the geographical and historical games provided. While checkers continues to be the most popular game, many have been led by the teachers to learn chess. In one of our centers, the chess team won a tournament from one of the high schools, and also played a draw series with the chess team from the New York University.

Every center is provided with fifty books from the New York Public Library. The titles include fiction, history, travel, poetry, and general literature, the books being changed frequently. There has been a great improvement in the literary standards of the men and women attending the centers. The issues of current magazines are also kept on file, and attract many readers.

Mixed dancing classes.—During the past season, dancing classes were successfully organized in a number of the centers. The classes met once a week in the centers for girls and women, and the attendance of the young men was largely limited to those who were accredited club members of some neighboring male center. The principal of the latter signed a card setting forth that the applicant was a reliable and regular club member. The woman principal in charge of the center in which the mixed dancing class met became the final judge as to the desirability of the applicant.

The principals were most careful and discreet in their supervision

of the classes, and there was no effort to aim at large numbers. The members of the classes were made to realize that all should co-operate to make the classes so proper in every way that no act of any member could be criticized. There was a gratifying improvement in the general appearance of the young men. The association with the young ladies not only developed a higher social tone, but also led the young men to be very careful about clean collars, neat neckties, polished shoes, and everything that pertains to correct personal appearance. Definite attempts were made at instruction in dancing. The first part of the evening was devoted to lessons to beginners, then a period of instruction for all, and the last period was devoted to general dancing. The young men were allowed to attend only one dancing class a week, so that they could still have time to attend their club meetings, and also benefit by the systematic physical training of the gymnasium.

The principals and social workers confidently look upon these classes as furnishing the correct antidote to the evils resulting from the dance halls in congested districts, so often run in connection with the lower order of liquor saloons. In this connection the following words of Mayor William J. Gaynor will bear repetition: "All young people want to dance. It is a perfectly wholesome desire. The boys and girls of today want to dance—and mark my words—they will dance. Therefore, it becomes the duty of every city to see that its young people dance in the right place. The gymnasiums of public-school buildings are a safe place."

Study rooms.—In connection with most of our centers, study rooms have been established. The attendance has been large, so great, in fact, that in some quarters we were hardly able to take care of all who applied. The children who have no proper places in which to study at home flock to the well-lighted study room, where comfortable seats and desks, and the guidance of an experienced teacher, serve to help the children prepare their lessons under proper surroundings.

The results derived from these rooms are potent factors in tending to reduce retardation, for most of the pupils who use the study rooms succeed in being promoted. In one school, out of the two hundred who attended the study rooms all but one were promoted at the end of the term. In some of the schools we have two teachers, thus enabling the principals to make a better grading of the pupils, the older ones being placed in one room and the younger ones in another. Some of the higher

pupils have been of great assistance in giving aid to the pupils of the lower grades, and have been able to improve themselves on account of the review work thus occasioned.

These rooms are not simply intended to furnish places where children can prepare their written lessons. The effort has been to make the name "study room" of real significance. Insistence has therefore been laid upon a quiet discipline, and no more inspiring sight can be witnessed than to see forty, fifty, and sometimes more pupils studying their history, geography, or grammar, or preparing other lessons assigned. Reference books are consulted, an occasional question is asked of the teacher, pen or paper borrowed, and all amid an atmosphere which makes for mental growth and, what is more important, develops the study habit.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

1. All new school buildings should have the first (ground) floor constructed with high ceilings, so that the indoor yard or playground may be properly equipped as a gymnasium at night.

2. It is necessary that adequate electric lighting be provided, especially in the game and library room. The entire center should be as well illuminated as a theater, saloon, or moving-picture show. It will thereby prove cheerful and attractive to visitors.

3. Mixed dancing classes are to be encouraged, but they must be carefully supervised so that both sexes may realize that the privilege is one that will be withdrawn from any person found to be unworthy.

4. In connection with the centers, one of the kindergarten rooms should be used at night as a "Mothers' Room." Here upon two or three nights of the week the mothers should gather to receive from a trained nurse full instructions regarding the proper care of babies, nursing, bathing, clothing, and such other topics as concern the care of infants.

5. The auditorium should be located on or below the street level, and be provided with movable furniture, to permit dancing, drills, pageants, and athletic exercises.

6. The auditorium platform should be sufficiently elevated that it may be used for little plays. An inexpensive curtain would be a great aid to the simple dramatic performances which may be attempted by the clubs.

7. The waste place in the cellar should be utilized for the installation of bowling alleys. Besides the area necessary for the heating and electric plant, there is ample room in large buildings for two, and in some cases for four alleys. These can be used by clubs attending the centers. The

expense of the equipment will add less than one-half of one per cent to the first cost of the building.

8. One side of the playground should be boarded, so as to provide proper space for hand-ball courts.

9. In connection with the clubs, the cooking-rooms of the day school should be used Friday and Saturday nights by mothers who should receive instruction in plain cooking, bread making, and simple dietary preparations.

10. Sewing clubs should also be organized for women who will not attend the regular instruction of the evening schools. Once or twice a week a practical teacher or dressmaker should give lessons in darning, patching, renovating old garments, and the making of simple articles of clothing.

11. In the less congested portions of the city, where it is not advisable to establish regular recreation centers, use can be made of some of the vacant rooms. These should not be installed with school furniture, but should be left for club purposes. The young men of the neighborhood should be permitted to use these rooms at night, and to instal at their own expense pool and billiard tables. Another room can be used as a game and library room. Such a plan would require only the services of one teacher, and a hundred or more young men would thus be kept from evil influences at night.

12. Where possible, larger opportunity should be afforded for the development of glee clubs and choral singing. In every school there is a piano, and by furnishing an enthusiastic teacher much can be done to instil a love for good music among our young men and women. No single activity can be conducted at such small expense and give more pleasure and profit to so many people.

13. Evening recreation centers should be furnished with baths, so that after the vigorous physical exercise there may be a chance to take a cool shower bath before venturing out into the night air. This is especially essential for the men and boys who take violent physical exercise, or who play such games as basket- and hand-ball. The main cost is the initial expense of installation. As the centers are usually located in the poor sections of the city, the shower baths are of great hygienic value, as many of the apartments are unprovided with proper bath accommodations.

14. In better neighborhoods, upon one or two evenings per month,

there should meet a "Fathers' Club," devoted to the discussion of civic, industrial, and social topics, and especially to the great American problem of how to bring up a boy in a great city. There will also be an opportunity to have explained the value of school report cards, and the scale of ratings adopted by the teachers of the day school. In some neighborhoods the above is well taken care of at regular parents' meetings conducted by the day-school principal.

15. Once a week in the auditorium or assembly hall there should be an exhibition of moving pictures. The topics illustrated should be educational in character, including manufactures, agriculture, transportation, history, geography, art, and literature.

16. It is very necessary that measures be taken to continue the work of social and recreation centers throughout the whole year. In most cities the work is abandoned from May to October. During the summer period the clubs disintegrate, and it is a long time before reorganization is effected in the fall. A further danger is that dance halls, pool rooms, and such places, which are always open, will attract the young people, encourage evil habits, and make it very difficult to get them back to the centers.

17. There is also to be desired a gradual extension of the use of the school auditoriums for the discussion of municipal problems. Matters of budget appropriations, railroad franchises, new high schools, proposed bridges, and the like, should be fully discussed, not only in the editorial columns of the papers as now, but also in open meetings held in the large auditoriums of our public schools.

In conclusion, may I say that the needs of sensible and practical economy demand a larger use of our public-school buildings than the usual plan of only using them for five hours a day and for five days a week. One of the chief property assets of every city is found in the public schools. Not to make ample use of this valuable possession is unbusiness-like and un-American. It is especially necessary because our young people should not only learn lessons of scholarship, but also lessons of real life. The natural desire of the young people to play must be encouraged, and their active interest secured in all public improvements.

I commend to all the excellent advice of President William H. Taft, as set forth in a recent address: "It is in their idle moments that the young contract the habits that lead them downward, and it is in their leisure that they can make their character what it ought to be."

VI. THE ROCHESTER CIVIC AND SOCIAL CENTERS¹

EDWARD J. WARD

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On February 15, 1907, delegates from eleven organizations, representing more than fifty thousand citizens of Rochester, met in the Chamber of Commerce and organized the School Extension Committee. One of the leading spirits in this body was Mr. Howard Bradstreet, who has done much for the playground movement in Rochester. He is now continuing his good service in New York City. The committee asked for and secured an appropriation of five thousand dollars, to be used in maintaining one playground and one vacation school, and to make a beginning of social-center work. It also gained the consent of the Board of Education to administer the funds.

On November 1, 1907, School No. 14, which is equipped with a gymnasium, shower baths, a library, magazines, stereopticon lantern, etc., was opened as the social center of the community. The week was divided so that the men and boys had the use of the building on three evenings, and the women and girls on two evenings. One evening was devoted to a general gathering for a lecture or entertainment, followed by a social hour for all. Directors were appointed to take charge of the men's and women's gymnasium work, the library, the boys' and girls' clubs. An assistant to the regular day-school janitor was engaged to do janitor work. Within a month after the opening of the center, clubs had been formed of men, women, boys, and girls—self-governing clubs meeting once each week and devoting themselves not only to the usual parliamentary business of a club, but especially to the development of an intelligent public spirit by the open presentation and free discussion of public questions. Before the end of the year, in addition to School No. 14, four other schools opened their

¹ Reprinted with permission from the *Proceedings of the Playground Association of America*, III, 387-95 (January, 1910). Mr. Ward was to prepare a paper especially for this yearbook, in which he planned to discuss his Rochester and Wisconsin work, but was prevented by illness from doing so.—EDITOR.

doors to social-center work—two for men's civic club meetings and two for boys' clubs, or "Coming Civic Clubs."

At the end of the first season about seventy-five men frequenting Social Center No. 14 signed the following letter:

To the Honorable, the Mayor and Common Council of the City of Rochester, N.Y.:

Knowing that the question of extending the social-center work of the public schools is now before you and believing that the judgment of the men who have frequented the Social Center at School No. 14 may be of value in this matter, we, the undersigned voters, residing in the neighborhood of School No. 14, and members of the Men's Civic Club of the Social Center, declare that in our judgment the opening of the public school in the evening for recreation, reading, and club meetings, so far as it has been tried at School No. 14, is an unqualified success.

Not only does it give opportunity for wholesome athletic exercise, literary culture, and training in good citizenship to the older boys and girls, and the young men and women of the community; and in its free lectures afford opportunities for entertainment and instruction to all the people: but especially in its clubs for men and women it is of great value as a place for the discussion and understanding of civic questions and the development of a good community spirit.

In our opinion there could be no more wise and economical investment of the city's money than in the extension of the social-center movement; and we do most heartily endorse the recommendations of the Board of Education in this matter.

The experiment for the first year was regarded as being so successful as to warrant doubling the appropriation for the second year. In addition to Social Center No. 14, two other school buildings—the West High School and School No. 9—located in widely separated sections of the city, were opened as community gathering places. The arrangement regarding time, equipment, and direction for the second year was practically the same as that made for the first year. During the second year, in addition to the men's civic clubs that had been formed during the previous year and those which were formed in the newly opened centers, a number of others were organized in various sections of the city. They represented every class of people and practically every interest in Rochester. In the middle of the second year these clubs formed themselves into a League. The reasons for organization and the purpose of the League may be taken from the preamble to its constitution:

The steady growth of the civic movement from its beginning in December, 1907, when there was one club with twelve members, to the present, when there are sixteen clubs with fifteen hundred members, seems to justify the belief that there is a permanent, real need of non-partisan organizations of adult citizens, meeting in the public-school buildings for the purpose of developing intelligent public spirit by the open presentation and free discussion of matters of common interest; and that the civic clubs meet that need.

To increase the effectiveness of the civic clubs and to further their purpose—especially in matters such as the securing and entertaining of distinguished visitors to the city, in giving unity to the expression through the various civic clubs of the people's will in the matter of desired legislation, and in guiding the further extension of the civic-club movement with a view to the welfare of the city as a whole—it is desirable to form a central league of federation of these civic clubs.

We, the chosen representatives and delegates of the several civic clubs of the City of Rochester, do hereby form such a League of Federation.

On April 8, 1909, Governor Hughes accepted the invitation of the league to visit the social centers and civic clubs, to dine with the officers, and to address the members of the various organizations. During the course of his address he said:

You in Rochester are meeting one of the great tests of our democratic life. You are proving that the virtues of humanity far exceed in force the vices of humanity. You are showing that it is health that is really contagious, and that in a progressive community the most intelligent of the citizens turn their attention to the thought of mutual improvement and of enlarging the area of the real opportunities of life. . . . It is in the social centers of Rochester that I should look for an answer to the question whether in a great democratic community you are realizing the purposes of society.

I have enjoyed seeing the splendid provision that is made through this movement for the promotion of physical well-being. How little we realize that character must have its basis in self-respect, and that it takes a good deal of a saint to have self-respect when one is not well and vigorous! I rejoice that boys and girls, and men and women are having an opportunity to lead normal lives, and to get the sound physical basis upon which everything else in life so largely depends.

I congratulate you upon the use that is made of the fine public buildings that have been erected for educational purposes. . . . We used to pass these stately edifices of education after school hours and found them closed and dark—interesting only because of the architectural beauty or curiosity of their façades. Now I do not know when the janitors find time to clean

the public-school buildings of Rochester. [Vacuum-cleaning plants are being installed in the new school buildings of Rochester.] It seems to me that they are being used all the time. This use of the school building is a school-extension proposition: what the community has paid for is now enriching the community in larger ways than were at first thought possible.

But you have not stopped there, and I am glad of that. You are organized in civic clubs, you have federated these clubs, and you are discussing public questions. We cannot have too much of that. . . . We have nothing to fear in this country if we can only have enough of that; the danger is in having too little.

The second season of the social centers, like the first, was most successful. The appropriation for the third year, that is \$22,000, was an increase of more than 100 per cent over the amount appropriated for the second year.

A detailed statement of all the activities of the social centers would mean a repetition of *The Story of the First Two Years*, a book of one hundred and twenty-four pages published by the League of Civic Clubs. It will be well, however, to speak of one or two of the great problems whose solution can be found along the line of this development, if we may judge from the beginnings that have been made.

One of these is the immigration problem—the great question of how to receive and assimilate the foreigners. At a public meeting of the first Italian Men's Civic Club, one of the members spoke of the service of the social centers in these terms:

When you meet the Italian half way, as you do in the social centers, recognizing that he as an Italian has something to bring, something to contribute to the common store; when you teach him to love and honor the American flag and all that it stands for to him; when you make him feel friendly—you make him feel that he is a man, and that he must be worthy of his larger citizenship.

The immensely important problem of furnishing wholesome opportunities for young men and women to meet and become acquainted finds a satisfactory solution in the opening of the social centers, in the custom of allowing the boys' clubs to entertain the girls' clubs, and especially in the practice of having a general social gathering each week.

The problem of the home, which is second to none in importance, finds a partial solution in the opening of the social centers. The social

center gives an opportunity for the whole family to find its outside recreation in the same place.

The equally important problem of civic improvement and real democracy also finds its solution here. It was at the organization meeting of one of the men's civic clubs that the alderman of the ward said:

The value of a civic club from the point of view of the private citizen has been stated. I want to say a word in regard to its value from the point of view of the public servant. An alderman is elected to represent the people, but how can he represent the people unless he knows what the people want? And how shall he know what the people want unless they tell him? I welcome the civic club because it will give me an opportunity to learn the will of the people in this neighborhood.

Finally the social center meets directly and effectively the problem of the boy at the most difficult and critical period. It was soon after the opening of the social center at School No. 14 that the director was stopped on the street by a merchant whose place of business is near by. The merchant said:

The social center has accomplished what I had regarded as impossible. I have been here nine years and during that time there has always been a gang of toughs around these corners, making a continual nuisance. This winter the gang has disappeared.

"They are no longer a gang," answered the director, "they are a debating club."

In closing permit me to quote some verses entitled, "What Social Center Means," which were written by a young man of one of the social centers. They are to be sung to the tune of "Auld Lang Syne." We may criticize the construction of the verses, but cannot deny that, coming from a member of the social center, they have real meaning:

WHAT SOCIAL CENTER MEANS

I. ALL

Did you ever stop to figure out
What "social center" means?
Here you will find democracy,
Men—kings, and women—queens.

Here each one can express his thought.
All stand on equal ground;
Here differences are all forgot,
Here brotherhood is found.

2. BOYS

We boys, who used to waste our time
On corners of the street,
Now turn our back on loafing:
We've a better place to meet—
A place where we can build ourselves,
Our body and our mind;
And we will surely "make good" here.
The center pays, you'll find.

3. GIRLS

We girls, who used to pose in front
Of mirrors half a day,
Now have the roses in our cheeks;
Our powder's thrown away.
We know that brains are more than hats,
That heads are more than hair;
We're here because we mean to be
Useful, as well as fair.

4. MEN

We men here meet without constraint
Real questions to decide;
To face the common enemy
We stand here side by side.
Old prejudice is on the run;
Injustice, too, shall go.
Why Rochester should not be right
To us you'll have to show.

5. WOMEN

We women count as human here,
We've head as well as heart.
In solving civic problems we
Have come to do our part.

For the ideals of the home
Expression we shall find
In cleaner, happier city life,
More beautiful and kind.

6. ALL

And so we've told you what to us
The social center means.
Here you will find democracy,
Men—kings, and women—queens.
Here each one can express his thought.
All stand on equal ground,
Here differences are all forgot,
Here brotherhood is found.

VII. HOME AND SCHOOL ASSOCIATIONS

MARY V. GRICE

President Home and School League, Philadelphia

A new force is being recognized today in the educational world—a force elusive, vague, not yet harnessed by the thongs and cords of organization, but none the less a force that is being reckoned with. It is the newly expressed impulse of the home that in turning its sometime indifferent gaze upon the school and reaching out toward the same in the spirit of co-operation has quickened into activity a latent power. This power is permeating strata after strata of social life. It takes on different forms in different places, but its key-word is the same wherever its outward and visible expression is seen—and that is “together”—the working together of the two great formative forces in the life of the child.

This movement began in the early days of the kindergarten. It was so perfectly natural for the mother to follow her very little child into the school that soon her presence became an accepted part of all school functions, indeed of most of the school hours. Gradually the circle of co-operative interest widened until it spread through the higher schools, while it is even manifesting itself in many Sunday schools, indicating that the principle of co-operation obtains wherever the best interests of the child are to be furthered.

By way of suggesting the extent of the movement in our own country we would quote from the office records of the Home and School League in Philadelphia for the month of November, 1910: “Forty-five cities have communicated with this office during the past month relative to the formation and method of conducting Home and School Associations.” There are few school communities today that are not at least discussing the subject, even though by reason of misapprehension on the part of the authorities, or by indifference or fear of extra burden on the part of the teachers it has not yet been accepted as an educational factor to be used as an uplift in community life.

The character of the work is purely that of social service. It must

be commenced and carried forward in the spirit of love—love that never patronizes, that never “goes down” but simply “goes along.” With such a spirit the movement is limitless in its possibilities for service.

The methods employed in carrying on these associations vary with the needs and conditions of the community, but the factor that seems imperative to the staying quality of the movement is that it *should come from the people themselves*, not be foisted upon them either by board of education or faculty of school. Yet he is a wise leader who, whether from the ranks of the profession or the laity, whether official or private citizen, can make the people realize the power gained through such organized effort.

One of the best methods of arousing public sentiment in this movement is to form a Central Committee of Citizens—educators, professional men, prominent women—who are willing to back the work both by moral support and financial aid. Let this Central Committee enlist the sympathy of the school board and teachers. (Be sure of the co-operation of the teachers. Wait, if need be, until they are converted. Their influence is essential to success.)

The committee should then organize a Bureau of Speakers—men and women of influence in the community—who will give at least one talk in a season upon some subject pertaining to the child’s welfare.

Finally, send invitations not only to every home represented in any particular school, but to all homes in the community—whether they have children or not in the school—aiming to have the volunteers assume the conduct of the meeting under the advice and co-operation of the teachers. All meetings should be held in the school buildings.

Having gathered together an audience as suggested above, present the value of community work as a power for community good, and you will find there are very few such occasions that will not result in the formation of a Home and School Association relating itself to the best interests of the school and its community.

When once the organization is formed its growth and development are along lines which suggest a natural law such as governs all organic life. Its first interest is in itself, just as completely as the interest of the very young child is self-centered. The organization is interested in its particular school, in the particular group of scholars connected with that school, in its particular needs, just as each father and mother are most deeply interested in the children of their own family circle. Naturally

the subjects discussed at first take on the coloring of the new interest. Those having the care of the children in the home meet with the caretakers and instructors of the school, and in seeking an answer to the age-old question—"What of the Child?"—are creating almost unconsciously a new educational force. Through these meetings and conferences men and women who have never before given the subject thought are beginning to realize in some degree the purpose and method of the school and its trained workers. School policy and discipline are discussed and the child's new relation to community life made clear.

It is not long before a second stage of development is reached. Those in the home are not content to be directed along the line of effort that relates to the school only. They desire to know more of the great underlying laws that govern child nature so that they in turn may be better fitted to carry on their share of the work in the home. Fundamental ethical problems come to the front at this point, questions not now of school policy but of character building, upon which both home and school must agree in order to obtain desired results. And so without apparent planning the homes about the school are being stimulated and enlightened and lifted up to a higher plane of endeavor.

Then comes the third widening of the circle. Not "our school" so much, nor even our "homes," but the community's interest is the thing dear to the heart of this organization. "Not the one for the many but all for each" becomes the slogan, and a new interpretation of Democracy begins to dawn upon the minds of the members. The horizon of interest is easily pushed back at this point. The simple organization of the home and school forces has become more all-embracing. The great world movements press in, and thus the little groups connected in this way with the schools all over the country find themselves in turn a part of the world and its concerns. Is it not easy to see what a splendid educational factor this movement may be made?

One of the interesting phases of the work is the active participation in it of bodies already organized. Associations for furthering public education, patriotic societies, women's clubs, neighborhood workers' associations, and many others are affiliating with this movement in different cities and forming a vast army of men and women all working for a common cause.

The results are what might be expected. Wherever home and school organizations have been formed they have contributed to the advance-

ment of the educational and social interests of the community. Quoting from an editorial in the *Philadelphia Ledger* following the Annual Conference of the Home and School League this past fall we find this thought emphasized:

The League's work has hardly begun in Philadelphia, yet no organization has been of greater beneficence in its direct and indirect results upon the schools themselves and upon the community than the work now being done by it. It is serving as an auxiliary to the Property Committee of the Board of Education in supplying bookcases, pianos, classroom decorations, trees for school grounds, material and equipment for extra classes which could not have been opened had they been compelled to wait to be supplied from the regular official sources, the equipment of playgrounds, and in many other ways contributing to the physical well-being of the schools. Besides these concrete benefits the movement is proving its usefulness as an aid to the school authorities in pressing their needs upon the municipality; it has in many instances given material aid to the Superintendents in providing books for the instruction of mothers in matters of sanitation and hygiene, lectures and entertainments for pupils and their parents, the organization of mothers' circles, and in making it possible for teachers to take advanced courses of instruction at the University of Pennsylvania Summer School. More important than any of these it has brought the public into closer relationship with the schools by the organization of social centers and the opening of the buildings for evening meetings and classes. In several schools classes for dancing, games, instruction in sewing and embroidery, in reading and dramatic recitation, in handicraft of various sorts, housework and home-making, physical training, etc., have been successfully conducted, and several neighborhood savings banks have been opened. All this could have been obtained in no other way than by the helpful co-operation of the public.

Within the past year in this one city alone nearly two hundred thousand people have gathered in the different school buildings from time to time after school hours, to say nothing of some twenty-seven thousand young people and children meeting in the social centers for various forms of recreational instruction.

It might be well while reviewing this movement to mention some of the difficulties one is bound to encounter, or the criticisms that are sure to arise in the working-out of any problem as great as the bringing together of two such widely separated institutions. One of the hardest difficulties to overcome in the beginning was the indifference on the part of the home. The urgent plea of a growing daughter, who had heard

her mother accept an invitation to attend a meeting in the school, voices the attitude a few years back—"Oh! Mother, please don't go. No one ever goes to the school *unless there is a fuss on.*" Today that attitude has changed. The home is eagerly knocking at the doors of the school, asking to come in and share with the trained teacher some of his knowledge concerning the child. This is not true of all homes, nor can it be said of any movement that it is ever accepted by all the people. The greatest difficulty to be overcome at present is to be met among the teaching body itself. With a system of education so overcrowded with that which has to be done "by the book" there is little time or energy left for the initiative required in the new field of Social Education. Yet so loud are the demands of the age for the service of brotherhood, so great are its claims, that despite their overburdened days many teachers are rising to this opportunity and responding with the gift of themselves to the needs of their neighborhoods. Such teachers are making a communal force of the school, and are relating it in ways unthought of before to the life of the people.

It is easy enough in the flush of enthusiasm of a new venture to effect an organization, but to carry on a sustained effort year after year requires tact and patience and hard work. There never has been, and probably never will be, anything that was worth doing that did not present difficulties that had to be met and overcome all along the way.

There are organizations that are making a study of the preparation of programs for home and school meetings, and for those who find it difficult to carry on that part of the work it is easy to secure assistance.

The criticism that those who need it most never come to the school can be met by Charles Dudley Warner's suggestion in *Back Log Studies*: "If you want a good fire *light it on top.*" The fire of community interest will burn through from top to bottom if only once it is lighted.

The criticism that this freer use of our school buildings subjects them to that much more wear and tear, which in turn necessitates added expense, can be met as was the teacher's remark when she said, "Look at these newly painted walls, and my unscratched desks; why, if the young people come in here of evenings the room will never be so nice again." The reply, "Yes, you are right, the room will never be 'so nice' again. It is all a case of relative values. Which would you rather have, unscratched desks or unscratched characters?"

It is hard to foresee just how great the educational value of this move-

ment may become in the future, it stands today big with promise. It is helping to make of the schoolhouses centers of light and usefulness, the influence of which cannot be computed by commercial standards, for the spirit of good citizenship radiating from each of these centers cannot be weighed nor measured, but the whole social structure will be the richer thereby.

VIII. THE COMMUNITY-USED SCHOOL

CLARENCE ARTHUR PERRY

Russell Sage Foundation, New York City

Public School No. 9 of Rochester, New York, besides affording the regular elementary day instruction, is used also as an evening school for foreigners in the winter and a vacation school in the summer. Its yard is a public playground, not only during July and August, but after class hours throughout the year, while in the building itself is provided a place for the utensils and athletic paraphernalia needed in the games and sports. The large room of the school is both an assembly hall and a gymnasium. Here, in the margin of the day, are held public lectures, free literary entertainments, amateur theatricals, concerts, mass meetings, and moving-picture shows. When the chairs are removed it is given over to numerous dances, basket-ball games, athletic exhibitions, and other social doings. These occasions do not occur spasmodically and infrequently: they come according to an annual program which is both full and choice. They are provided by the city and enjoyed by the public without discrimination.

The class and kindergarten rooms serve by night and Sunday afternoons as places for reading both books and periodicals, playing quiet games, and rehearsing orchestral and glee music. There is no fee attached to these privileges and the people of the neighborhood make a liberal use of them. Thriving civic clubs—four separate organizations for men, women, young women, and youths—also have quarters in the building while free classes of both sexes rotate in the use of the gymnasium, which is well equipped with apparatus and shower-baths, and manned with a staff of competent specialists. Such, briefly, are the main features of what is probably one of the best examples of a community-used school in this country, or indeed, in the world.

There are fortunately many other American schools which afford these privileges in varying degrees. As in the case of this Rochester school they supplement the regular day instruction with activities which enrich the lives of grown-ups as well as children and thus serve more adequately the communities in which they are located. This larger

use of school property not only affects the community; it develops the school as well. First let us consider the effects upon the community. These, for the sake of clearness, may be grouped under three heads: public health, civic efficiency, and social solidarity.

I. PUBLIC HEALTH

Perhaps the most obvious way in which the wider use of school property contributes to the physical well-being of the community is found in the increased opportunities for play and enjoyable hand occupations afforded by vacation classes and yard games and sports. Jumping, calisthenics, basket-ball, and dancing give not only immediate benefits but also permanent ones, since they foster athletic habits. But for the shower-bath, first taken at the playground or in the school gymnasium, many people would probably never acquire the custom of daily bathing. The art of swimming which is included in many playground and recreation-center programs is not only a valuable physical exercise but an accomplishment of prime importance in certain emergencies. The chinning, jumping, and running events which constitute the badge tests and class athletics now carried on in many schools give bodily strength and inculcate, at the same time, notions of the simplicity, cheapness, and effectiveness of the elemental, really necessary things of life. Folk-dancing, especially, represents the maximum of benefit with the minimum of expense. Exhilarating, sociable, imparting grace, exercising all the muscles, quickening the important bodily functions, requiring small space per person, and economical of teaching material—its introduction has changed the aspect of life for thousands of city girls and it may be preparing heritages of rhythm and color for unborn generations.

The medical inspections given children at the playgrounds and the physical examinations held in the social-center gymnasiums affect beneficially not only the subjects themselves but indirectly their relations and friends, by setting higher standards of physical efficiency and by suggesting ways of discovering latent weaknesses. Of a similar value are the playground exercises specially prescribed for children with wry-neck, spinal curvature, and other deformities; the pure milk distributed and the day-nursery care afforded now in city-school yards during the hot months. A beginning which may have even more far-reaching effects upon the health of American school children is to be seen in the warm, nourishing lunches now furnished in some of the

schools of Houston, Texas, by the Mothers' Clubs of that city. Considerable loss of life is undoubtedly prevented through the mere withdrawal from the crowded city streets of large numbers of children through the attractions of the playground and vacation school. It is to be hoped also that drawing them out of the homes and leaving the housewives greater freedom for household duties results in cleaner rooms and more appetizing meals for the whole family. There can be no doubt, however, that both the training rules which surround participation in out- and indoor sports, and the custom of spending leisure time in social and evening recreation centers promote temperance in the use of stimulants on the part of young men. So much for the physical effects of the *practices* in community-used schools.

Concerning the health-giving instruction imparted in these centers an example is found in the results of an evening illustrated talk given in one of the Cleveland schools. It was entitled "How We May Aid the Fight Against Tuberculosis," and afterward the committee in charge received over forty letters from pupils telling of sanitary changes which had taken place in their homes. In Chicago the Visiting Nurses' Association carried on one summer a campaign of education through the vacation schools for the purpose of ameliorating the diarrheal diseases in young children. These schools also send out through the children a constant stream of information upon the best ways of cooking, preserving food, securing pure milk, and keeping the home clean. In many playgrounds babies are bathed by trained nurses in the presence of the mothers who are also given other instruction about the care of their infants.

Over one hundred of the lectures given annually by the Board of Education in New York come under the head of physiology and hygiene, while in the social centers and home and school meetings throughout the country a large part of the talks given are devoted to such topics as "The Care of Infants," "Pure Milk," "The Prevention of Contagious Diseases," "First-Aid Methods," and the advocacy of a bloodless Fourth of July. In the club meetings the mothers and wives not only discuss similar subjects but exchange recipes, learn how to clothe their girls properly and how to stop cigarette-smoking among their boys. Thus through thousands of channels opened by the wider use of school property is the wisdom of the physician and the scientist being conveyed into the homes of the inexperienced and the susceptible.

II. CIVIC EFFICIENCY

In the work of rendering more effective and less wasteful those services for the whole community which it delegates to representatives, school extension can render valuable assistance. Citizens must be adequately informed before they can exercise "efficient citizenship." How organizations meeting in schoolrooms help civic progress is illustrated in Rochester where, at the second meeting of the pioneer Men's Civic Club, "The Duties of an Alderman" were discussed by a member of that body. In responding to a vote of thanks he said: "You have given me a vote of thanks. I feel that I want to give you a vote of thanks for the privilege of speaking to you and hearing your frank discussion of my words. If you have been benefited by my coming here, I have been benefited more. If every member of the Common Council and every other public servant had, frequently, such opportunities as this to discuss public matters with those to whom he owes his appointment it would mean that we would have much better, more intelligent representation of the people's interests and a cleaner government."¹

Some of the other topics discussed by the civic clubs in this city are: "The Duty of a Citizen to the City," "Idealism in Municipal Politics," "Why Vote for Taft?" "Democratic Policies," "Socialist Policies," and "Prohibition Policies." The reason for the success of these meetings given by a prominent schoolman who was visiting Rochester is as follows:

Yes, I see it. The foundation of this development in Rochester is the right of free discussion and democratic control. I have wondered why, in our city, although we have spent as much money and effort in having the schools used as Social Centers as you have, yet we haven't developed the same spirit. The reason is that the men haven't made use of the schools, and the men haven't made use of the schools because we have superimposed restrictions upon their discussion. It is strange to think that, in America, in the most essentially American of our institutions we have denied this right. Unquestionably the secret of the success of the Rochester movement is in the fact that it has not been un-American.²

And the men in these clubs do not limit themselves to mere talk. They have formed a league which works "for the city as a whole."

¹ Ward, *Rochester Social Centers and Civic Clubs*, pp. 29-30.

² *Fifty-fifth Report of Board of Education* (Rochester, N.Y.), p. 138.

They have been instrumental in securing playgrounds. Their agitation has brought about improvements in the streets and street-car service and the establishment of public comfort stations; and they have set the example of systematic action in opposition to unsatisfactory divisions of land by real-estate companies.

The civic effect of public lectures having such topics as these, selected from many on the New York Board of Education's program, is obvious: "Municipal Cleaning and Its Relation to Public Health," "Housing in Europe," "Factories, Tenements and the Sweating System," "Our New Water Supply," and "City Planning."

By way of preparing young people for community life the vacation schools render valuable service in teaching property rights to street gangs, curing juvenile delinquency, and affording backward pupils larger opportunities to secure promotion, privileges which may determine that they are to remain in school long enough to secure the civic education afforded in the last two years of the elementary course. The evening recreation centers yield not only the same sort of help to retarded pupils but through their clubs and debating societies the youths receive excellent parliamentary training and imbibe many facts about municipal affairs. Even the sports contribute to this end when they demonstrate in the conduct of some reclaimed tough that, as Miss Evangeline Whitney phrased it, "the athlete's code of honor is a triumph over lawlessness, the beginning of a citizen's conception of duty."

The kind of civic work done by the organizations which hold their meetings in schoolhouses is well illustrated by the activity of the Parent-Teachers Clubs of Auburn, New York, which, through a skilful agitation, secured a probation officer for the city, and also by that of the Parents' League, which offered prizes and held a neighborhood improvement contest in a suburb of Boston.

III. SOCIAL SOLIDARITY

Among the forces tending to fill in the fissures in our social life which have resulted from the prevailing industrial system and the immigration of uncongenial aliens may be mentioned the supervised playground, the evening recreation and social centers, and the basement or hall where folk-dancing is held. Playground workers frequently tell of race feuds which have either entirely disappeared or been converted into enthusiastic competitions through the effects of organized games

and sports. The peasant father acquires a different feeling toward Americans when his daughter dances his national dance before him and tells of the good times she has after school. The natives also feel a new respect for the poor foreigner when at some school festival they see him participating gracefully and joyously in an exhibition of the merry-making which had lightened the labors of his people for generations past.

The domestic-science training of summer schools and playgrounds imparts to thousands of immigrant homes a knowledge of American customs which subtly undermines that greatest barrier to racial intermingling—differences in manner of living. The club-life of the evening recreation centers works toward the same end in a different way. How effectively, no one has more adequately expressed than Mrs. Humphrey Ward who, after a visit to several New York centers, reported as follows:

In another we found a thousand girls, divided in the same way between active physical exercise and club meetings (by the way, while one of the boys' clubs was debating Mr. Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, the girls were discussing *Silas Marner*); and, in the third, perhaps most remarkable of all, five hundred girls were gathered debating whether you should retain the Philippine Islands, with a vigor, a fluency, a command of patriotic language and feeling which struck me with amazement. Here were girls, some of whom could only have arrived in your country a year or two ago, and all of them the children of aliens, appealing to your Anglo-Saxon forefathers, and talking of your Revolutionary War and the Monroe Doctrine, of liberty and self-government, with an intensity of personal appropriation such as no mere school teaching could have produced.¹

Adult foreigners are affected in similar ways by the privileges of school social centers.

When you meet the Italian half way [said a prominent naturalized citizen of Rochester] as you do in the Social Center, recognizing that he, as an Italian, has something to bring, something to contribute to the common store, then you teach him to love and honor the American Flag and all that it stands for to you, by showing some respect for his flag, and all that that stands for to him, then you make him feel friendly, you make him feel that he is a man, you make him feel that he must be worthy of his larger citizenship.²

In a different way, by the fusing effect of experiencing³ a common emotion, the social center exerts an amalgamative influence upon the

¹ *Tenth Annual Report of the City Superintendent of Schools* (New York City), p. 523.

² Ward, *Rochester Social Centers and Civic Clubs*, p. 90.

community which is needed by natives quite as much as by immigrants. Rev. Samuel McChord Crothers gave an instance of it when he said:

Not since Civil War days have I heard people sing with such spirit. The one justification of war is that it makes people realize that they have a common bond, a common interest—and they express that feeling in songs. You people of Rochester, in the Social Centers, have made the same discovery of a common bond. You prove it by the spirit of your singing. You have done a great thing. You have found a substitute for the only good thing about war, so that war is no longer necessary.¹

How the school lectures aid in the assimilation of the alien is well illustrated in New York where provision is made for several of the races which are here in large numbers. The Italians hear in their own tongue a discourse upon the "Rights and Duties of an American Citizen." A Hebrew tells his neighbors about "Great American Literary Men," while the Germans listen to their compatriots expatiate upon musical celebrities. For the more recent immigrants there are lectures which are so fully illustrated with pictures and demonstrations that they are to a large degree understandable without much knowledge of English.

Again the public lecture exerts a needed cohesive force upon all who come within its range. The reason is well stated by Superintendent A. B. Poland of Newark:

The school building is the common forum where men and women of all social and intellectual grades meet on a level, as nowhere else—certainly not in houses of worship, since there they are necessarily divided into separate and distinct communions. Scarcely another place, except it be the polling place, can men of all classes meet on a common basis of citizenship; and even at the polls men are usually divided into hostile camps. Anything that draws men together on a common footing of rights, powers, duties, and enjoyments is a great social and moral power for good citizenship. Next to the public school, which tends to obliterate hereditary and acquired social and class distinctions, the public lecture held in the public schoolhouse and paid for out of the public purse is the most thoroughly democratic of our public institutions.²

IV. REACTION OF COMMUNITY-USE UPON THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The president of the Pittsburgh Playground Association reports that as a result of its vacation-school work, industrial and domestic-science departments have been placed in a number of the day schools.

¹ *Fifty-fifth Report of Board of Education* (Rochester, N.Y.), p. 145.

² *Fifty-first Annual Report of Board of Education* (Newark, N.J.), p. 177.

In others play has been given a place on the regular daily program and many teachers have learned how to play with their children. Teachers commonly state that the pupils who have enjoyed summer-school and playground privileges return to their classes in the fall in a less demoralized condition and settle down to work with less friction and trouble.

The success of the summer-school activities is undoubtedly responsible for the tendency now noticeable in many places to extend the period of the regular day instruction. Cleveland has been so successful in running the new Technical High School twelve months in the year that plans are now being made to place the elementary instruction on that basis, and the idea has attracted attention in other cities. In Oakland, California, some of the schools have been opened Saturday mornings to allow instruction in domestic science and manual training. In New York, Newark, and several other cities the children are allowed to hold games and folk-dances after hours in classrooms and basements.

Concerning the effects of systematic athletics and play upon school work Mr. Lee F. Hanmer has written as follows: "In cities where this work has been organized and given a fair test school authorities are practically unanimous that (1) class work is better; (2) the health of the school children is improved; (3) a wholesome school spirit is developed; (4) there is less trouble about discipline owing to the closer relation and better understanding between the pupils and teachers."²

The organization of home and school associations in connection with the larger schools created a demand for a meeting-place in the building more suitable than the ordinary classroom. The principals also wished a place where the whole school could assemble and the consequence has been that in many cities all plans for new elementary schools now provide for a spacious auditorium. Thus the building becomes better adapted not only for community-use but also for developing a healthy school spirit. Without a common meeting place the only other agency for creating this feeling is to be found in athletics, a very effective one, to be sure, but one that does not develop exactly the same kind of spirit that springs from a debate, an inspiring lecture, or a public exhibition of scholastic ability.

One of the arguments used in a recent successful campaign waged by the Civic League of Lexington, Kentucky, for the purpose of raising

² Hanmer, *Athletics in the Public Schools* (p. 11), Russell Sage Foundation Pamphlet.

funds with which to build a new model schoolhouse was the accommodation which would be made "for various social uses." Their appeal, speaking of the large room which could be used as kindergarten, gymnasium, or auditorium, said:

With the stage at the end and folding chairs it may be converted into an auditorium for stereopticon lectures, musical entertainments, and plays. When the school buildings belonging to the people are used by the people as their clubhouses, where recreation, physical activity, and educative amusement may be had by the young in proper environment the saloon evil and other social evils will not cut so large a figure in our civilization.

But besides this direct way in which community-use is securing better school facilities for the children there is a constant improvement in educational methods through the better understanding of the teacher's aims and problems which the parent has gained by being brought into the school building. The citizen, thus enlightened, in his capacity of taxpayer strengthens the schoolman's work with appropriations, and as parent gives him more effective co-operation in the home.

Finally, the forces which are rapidly transforming public schools into focuses of community life are genuine human needs, some elemental, others created by an unprecedented gregariousness, but all compelling satisfaction if the advance of the race toward its destiny is to be unimpeded. The matter has been well stated by Dr. Luther Halsey Gulick in these words:

Only upon the basis of personal understanding and mutual confidence is efficient and coherent social action possible. This is the foundation of democracy. Communities must have, therefore, material and social machinery by which various classes shall come to know each other; some instrument that shall cross-section racial, financial and social strata; something that shall go beneath these and touch fundamental human interests. Of these the central one is the love of children, and the machinery most natural, as well as most available, is the public-school system.²

² Introduction to Perry, *Wider Use of the School Plant*, p. vii.

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THE TENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE RURAL SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY CENTER

BY

B. H. CROCHERON, MISS JESSIE FIELD, F. W. HOWE, E. C. BISHOP
A. B. GRAHAM, O. J. KERN, M. T. SCUDDER
B. M. DAVIS, *Editor*

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PREFACE

This yearbook is planned to include accounts of actual experiments that have been tried in making the school a community center, so that other communities may learn of the possibilities and difficulties of putting into practice what has already been achieved in some of the most advanced communities. At the National Education Association meeting for 1902 (p. 373 of *Proceedings*) John Dewey discussed very ably the theoretical aspects of the problem as requested, but said:

I do not feel that the philosophical aspect of the matter is the urgent or important one. The pressing thing, the significant thing, is really to make the school a social center; that is a matter of practice and not of theory. Just what to do in order to make the schoolhouse a center of full and adequate social service, to bring it completely into the current of social life—such are the matters I am sure which really deserve the attention of the public and occupy your own minds.

The contributors to this volume are specialists who have made conspicuous success in organizing the various phases of rural education and community activity which they discuss. They have described in a concrete way the extent and character of the work carried on under their direction, giving methods employed, results secured, concrete incidents, difficulties, criticisms, suggestions, and comparison with similar work in other communities.

The editor and secretary desire to express their appreciation of the work of the specialists who have provided the material, and of the assistance of others who co-operated in organizing the program, particularly Mr. D. J. Crosby of the United States Department of Agriculture.

Part I of the *Tenth Yearbook* supplements this volume with a similar discussion of "The City School as a Community Center."

I. THE RURAL SCHOOL AS A GENERAL EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL CENTER

A. COMMUNITY WORK IN THE AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOL

B. H. CROCHERON

Principal of the Agricultural High School of Baltimore County, Philopolis, Md.

The methods of community work fitting specific places must be judged by individual conditions. A typical procedure is that of the Agricultural High School of Baltimore County, Maryland. This school has been in operation during but one school year, yet it has already carried on at least one type of work with each class of people in its neighborhood: farmers, farmers' wives, young people, rural school teachers, and children. As a result, the people are frankly and heartily interested in the school and already regard it as one of their best possessions.

The school is a small high school maintained by county school funds. It is thus an integral part of the school system of the county. It is located out in the open country, not adjacent to any town or village, but near a station of the railroad by which many of the high-school students come daily. Four elementary schools totaling ninety pupils were consolidated in two classes which meet in the high-school building. The high-school department had in the first year fifty students. School wagons and private conveyances bring many whose homes are not adjacent to the railroad. The school has seven acres of ground and a good granite building which has five classrooms, the two largest of which can be converted into a hall for meetings, seating three hundred. There are a manual-training room, a domestic-science room, an agricultural laboratory, a farm-machinery room, and toilet rooms in the basement. The school has its own heating, lighting, and water-supply system. It teaches all the usual high-school subjects except foreign languages, in place of which it offers agriculture, domestic science, and manual training. In short, the school resembles others over the country in its equipment and courses.

When the school started it was decided as a definite part of its policy that, for the fulfilment of its possibilities, educational facilities must be offered for every class of persons in the community: men, women, and

children. Before the school building was completed, a mailing list of persons in the county was made. The principal was new to the community; he knew no one. This list was to be his method of reaching all the folks. The list was compiled from subscription lists of county papers, poll lists of voters, memberships of farmers' clubs and granges, account books of physicians and lawyers, and other sources. When the list was made up into a cross-reference card index, a very valuable fund of information was obtainable about almost anyone of interest in the county. It was not only possible thus to have a list of all persons living on farms or interested in agriculture, but also to tell at a glance whether they were persons of prominence or not, and even what their politics were supposed to be. Subsequent information is added to these cards, such as whether they answered a letter of inquiry sent out by the school, whether they attended certain activities of the school, and so forth. Ultimately this list should be of enormous value, as it will show those persons who can or cannot be expected to respond. Even at present it is possible to condense the list considerably by discarding for some purposes those whose interest is apparently in another direction.

The first event was to be the dedication of the new building, the details of which were turned over to two farm clubs—one of men, the other of women. The men's club is known as the Junior Gunpowder Agricultural Club, the women's as the Women's Home Interest Club. Both are composed of some of the most intelligent and progressive persons in the community. The clubs have been of great benefit to the neighborhood, even though they are small and somewhat exclusive organizations. Through all the community work of the school the men and women of these clubs have been so actively participant as to be of great assistance. If there were no farm clubs in the neighborhood the school would organize them, because they are capable of so great assistance.

Three thousand personal invitations, the names obtained from the card index, were sent out from the school for the dedication exercises. The best possible speakers were obtained. Of course the building was not nearly large enough to hold the folks, so that the exercises were held outdoors, as many of the crowd as possible being seated on rough board benches. The women's club served a luncheon before the exercises to a large number of specially invited guests. Because the school owned no chairs everyone stood during the meal.

At about the same time posters telling of what the school had to offer appeared all over the county. They were nailed up on trees at crossroads, and on post-offices, blacksmith shops, schoolhouses, and even churches. The school believes in local advertising. Whenever a new organization or series of meetings is attempted, the local and city papers are given full information; consequently the school has much free publicity all of which has aided its work.

The community work started almost as soon as the regular classes. The first organization formed was a series of monthly meetings for rural school teachers. It seemed desirable to introduce elementary agriculture into the rural one-teacher schools, but difficulty had been experienced because of the feeling of incompetence on the part of the teacher. To overcome this, in part at least, the rural teachers were invited to the agricultural high school for an all-day session on one Saturday each month. The morning was spent on lessons in general school methods and administration given by experts furnished by the county school authorities. Each teacher brought a basket lunch and all ate together in the domestic-science kitchen. The school served hot coffee or tea, some of the high-school girls attired in their cooking uniforms acting as waitresses. The afternoon was devoted to agriculture. The teachers were given one general lesson expounded from a textbook and then went to the agricultural laboratory where an exercise was carried through by each teacher. Care was taken to have these exercises such that they could be repeated in the rural schools without expensive apparatus. The object was not only to familiarize the teachers with methods and subject-matter, but also to make them realize that real agricultural lessons were possible in their schools under their conditions. At the same time lessons in elementary agriculture, written by the principal with a view to local conditions, were printed in the monthly issues of a local educational publication which is sent free by the school authorities to every teacher in the county. By means of these lessons and the meetings at the school it was hoped that agriculture could gradually be introduced. The meetings were not successful. Transportation facilities were bad for those teachers coming from a distance. One teacher wrote that she could not get a horse to drive, and although she would gladly walk the ten miles each way necessary to reach the railroad, she could hardly do so and catch the six o'clock train for the school. Others did from their slender salaries hire teams and a driver and then came twenty miles

across country to attend the meetings. These could hardly be expected to keep that up indefinitely. Then, too, the weather combined to make conditions as bad as possible. One teacher came thirty miles to attend a meeting when the air was blinding with snowflakes and the drifts were knee-deep. She ought not to have come. Ultimately the principal felt sorrier for those rural teachers than he did for the lack of agriculture in the schools, so ceased holding meetings in the winter months. Another plan will be devised next year.

A course of ten evening lectures for farmers was projected during the winter months. The school could not give a short course of any description during school hours because there were not teachers enough. It is not possible personally to teach in two places at once. The solution appeared to be a course of evening lectures, although there did not seem to be any definite demand for such a series. Persons being asked if a course would succeed said they did not know, or else that "maybe they would attend once or twice." It was decided to make the attempt, although the principal, who was to be the lecturer, was seriously advised to limit the projected course to five instead of ten lectures because a failure would then be less disastrously apparent.

It was decided to lecture on "Soils and Fertilizers"; not that the principal knew more of that than other branches, but because the people seemed to know less and wanted the information. A new issue of posters was printed setting forth the time, date, place, and subject of the lectures, and these were placarded all over the county. The lectures were to be illustrated by experiments continued throughout almost all the course. Although alphabetically simple to the chemist, physicist, and soil technologist, the experiments vitally interested the people. Those lamp chimneys and Bunsen flames hypnotically held the folks while the talk went on. Outlines for each lecture were made by mimeograph and distributed to each person. The audience was requested always to bring the previous outlines to the lectures for reference. The evenings were understood to be serious affairs, designed for those who wanted to know and not as an entertainment for the curious. As projected they were for men, but the women asked to be allowed to attend and many did so throughout the course. The first lecture was attended by 60 persons, the second by 90, the third by 100, and so on. For the entire course, good and bad weather included, the attendance averaged 125 persons for each lecture, and this in an open farming country where practically

everyone had to drive through the dark over ice, snow, and slush. There was no doubt about the success of the undertaking. At a spring meeting of a farmers' club a question was asked about the advisability of a certain soil treatment. At once came the answer from another farmer, "If you had attended the lectures last winter at the agricultural high school you would not have to ask that; you would *know!*"

After the close of the course of lectures a Corn Congress was planned, corn being one of the chief crops of the county. Nothing of the kind had ever been held in the state before, but therein lay its charm. The affair was to last two days with morning, afternoon, and evening sessions of addresses each day. Speakers were secured from the National Department of Agriculture and from the Maryland State College and Experiment Station. Twelve speakers, some of the best in the country, held forth at the series of six sessions. All the addresses were directly on corn growing and cooking, for the women too had addresses and demonstrations. Posters again were issued, always printed in red on white paper—the school colors—and all persons, clubs, granges, and schools were invited to enter an exhibit of ten ears of corn in the show. It was pointed out again to the principal that there were only enough persons in the neighborhood to make one good-sized audience, and that while they might attend a single session they would not come to more. The result would thus be that either all would attend the best advertised address and leave the others to be given to empty seats, or else that there would be only a few people at all sessions. The outcome was different, for all sessions were well attended. People came and stayed throughout the two days, only going home to sleep. In all, over 180 exhibitors each sent in ten or more ears of corn and almost 1,000 persons attended the sessions. Twenty rural schools held small preliminary shows of their own and sent the best exhibits to the Corn Congress. Simultaneous meetings in different parts of the same building were held for men, women, and children. Although seats were at a premium it only added to the interest. Meals were served at a lunch counter by the ladies of the women's club, who again came to the aid of the school, giving the proceeds to the school treasury. For the corn show only ribbon prizes were bestowed, although the city stores would have been willing to contribute cook stoves, carpet-sweepers, washing-machines, and like articles for prizes; yet, because the school believes in amateur rather than professional sports, the ribbons alone were the prizes. At the

close of the last session the prize exhibits of corn were sold at auction to the highest bidders. By this means good seed corn was distributed throughout the neighborhood. The Corn Congress was a success. Everybody is getting ready for a bigger, better, and busier one next year.

For the women a series of monthly meetings was held on Saturday afternoons. Using the card list again, postal cards were sent out to 300 women living within driving distance of the school. The three school wagons were run over the regular routes to bring them to the meetings. Thus many women who would have been unable because of the farm work to secure a man and team to take them to the school were enabled to attend. The meetings opened by a general session at which one person spoke for fifteen minutes. This person was always someone of prominence and ability, someone vitally concerned in the world's work. The address was followed by music. The musicians and speakers have always willingly contributed their services, and usually came from the city. Following the general meeting, the women divided into four groups which were self-chosen and continuous throughout the year; at the end of each year the groups change.

The first group is for the study of domestic science. The women do not attend a demonstration, but each works with the individual equipment placed at her disposal. Nickel-plated cook stoves, bright pans, and clean china add to the attractiveness of the work. It is the same type of study given the children.

The second group does carpentry in the manual-training room. The women are taught to saw, plane, hammer, and do other simple operations. It will not be necessary for those women to wait until their husbands find time to build the chicken coops.

The third group is known as the group in home crafts. Instruction is given in chair-caning, rug-weaving, Indian basketry, stenciling, etc.

The fourth group takes up a study of modern literature. It is designed for those persons who prefer to find in the meetings a rest and relaxation rather than a means of industry. Various modern authors are successively considered, with readings from each.

The meetings have had an average attendance of 85 at each meeting and are well filling the place for which they were intended.

A literary society was formed for young people in the neighborhood who happen to be too old to go to school. The society meets once in two weeks and has a membership of about 100 persons who pay dues for

its maintenance. Spelling-bees, debates, and other so-called literary exercises are held and serve to engender a better neighborhood spirit while enlivening the long winter evenings. A reading-circle on the Chautauqua plan meets every two weeks, an interesting offshoot of the main society.

During the summer the school conducts experiments on the home farms of its pupils. All boys in the high-school department are expected to perform at home an experiment of their own selection during the summer vacation. This is in order to bring the work of the school to the people at large as well as concretely to emphasize the instruction of the winter in the mind of the student. The experiments, scattered over a territory twenty-five miles long by five miles broad, attract much attention among the neighbors and are an efficient demonstration of agricultural ideas. They range over many subjects according to the choice of the student. Many are variety tests of corn from seed furnished by the school, the corn being grown under modern methods by the student. Other students are testing herds of dairy cows, weighing and recording the milk at each milking and making frequent Babcock tests of the butter-fat content, while still others conduct a variety test of cowpeas or of popcorn. The experiments are closely watched from the school, the principal visiting them frequently during the summer and advising the students concerning them. This brings the principal in touch with the home life of the students and gives the boys the impetus necessary, sometimes, to carry on a flagging experiment.

The school tests seeds and milk for farmers. During the early spring months many samples of clover seed were submitted for a decision of the weed seeds present and of the germinative ability of the sample. Throughout the entire year milk and cream are tested for the butter-fat content. As many farmers in the neighborhood sell their product by the amount of butter-fat contained, it is highly desirable that they have occasionally an authoritative test from a disinterested source with which to compare the tests made by the dealer. The school furnishes this test.

With the activities throughout the neighborhood emanating from the new school it was but natural that there should be a renewed activity along lines of religious organization. A long disused chapel was opened, a committee of ten young men was appointed by the principal, and regular Sunday night meetings for young people were held. The people looked naturally to the school to form the organization, supply the

enthusiasm, and lead in the work. About 100 young people attend the meetings, which are undenominational in character and marked by their enthusiasm.

The community work of the school has not proved of unusual difficulty, nor has it disclosed obstacles which make it prohibitive for any school anywhere. On the contrary, the work has proved easier than seemed possible and more successful than appeared probable. Many of the dilemmas conjured up by pessimistic advisers never materialized. From this experience it seems certain that every agricultural high school in the country—even those like this with a small faculty, small funds, and small building—can make a success of community work.

Thus, when developed to its full extent, the agricultural high school is more than a mere institution for the instruction of children. It is an educational force for the whole family, and a social, cultural, and ethical center for the entire community. The expansion of the country high school into an agricultural high school is more than the addition of subjects to the curriculum and a change in name. It is an entire change in the point of view. Educators are beginning to see that ultimately one of the greatest fields of work of the agricultural high schools may be with that portion of the community which does not usually attend school at all and for which the school funds are not usually appropriated. It is by its work with the community at large—with the men and women on the farms—that the agricultural high school may find its strongest claim on popular attention and its greatest field for vital service.

B. THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS IN A COUNTY AS EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL CENTERS

MISS JESSIE FIELD

Superintendent, Page County, Iowa

The great need of more social life in the country, and the fact that the schools are the one agency that reach out to all the people, throw the great and vital problem of bringing a richer social life to the country directly upon these district schools. And before they can fulfil this mission, they must be entirely redirected—they must become country schools for country people. Schools they must be, primarily, that are interested in the great agricultural industry of their community and they must also succeed in interesting boys and girls in life on the farm and bring to them a vision of its great possibilities if rightly lived.

This new district school must have all the virility of the district schools of our fathers: it must be thorough and efficient and it must be in line with the newer and better things for farming. Should the teacher belong to the Grange? to the Farmers' Institute? Certainly. And the Farmers' Institute and the Grange should belong to the district school.

Very closely interwoven will this new country school be with all the great instrumentalities which are working for more intelligent farming. Last week in visiting such a school in my county, I found two racks on the wall filled with classified farm bulletins. These racks were placed where they were quite convenient of access for the larger boys. I was watching the biggest boy, with his dark, strong face, for he was the boy on whom in years gone by I had heard that the teacher had had to use the poker. Would he care for farm bulletins? To be sure, his father was a farmer but he lived off the road and was not yet interested nor did he see the value of the new things in agriculture.

It was the boy with the dark, strong face who as soon as he had prepared his spelling lesson—instead of making trouble—reached out for a farm bulletin and began to study it. I wondered, was he really interested? So I asked, "John, do you find those bulletins interesting?" "Yes," he answered, "I did not used to think they were, but

now since I have found how much is in them, I think they are more interesting than my agriculture book. There is so much in them."

It was a district school like this where all the men came and spent the day terracing the grounds, and their wives brought dinner and they ate together. And a more beautiful school ground and a happier neighborhood spirit resulted.

It was for this school that the grouchiest farmer in the district opened up his heart and came himself and brought his son and his hired man and three teams to work on the yard because the school had won a place in his respect by doing such strong and transforming work.

A live school means a live community that is working together. Our teachers one spring had at each school a germination test for seed corn. One little teacher reported: "My boys who wouldn't go across the road for a songbook, went two miles in a snow storm to get some sawdust for a germination box. And when the corn had germinated, the farmers came to the schoolhouse to see how their corn had turned out and incidentally saw the work of the school. Why, farmers came who couldn't remember when they had been inside the schoolhouse before."

We have a Babcock milk tester which we pass from school to school in the districts specially interested in dairying. After the school learns how to use it, the farmers ask to borrow it. One farmer who returned the tester yesterday told me that because of it he had sold eight cows that it was not paying him to keep. For the Babcock tester soon weeds out the cows that are not paying their board, let alone bringing a profit for the hard work of the farmer who milks them.

In districts where fruit growing is especially carried on, we hope to bring especially something of the science of horticulture. Throughout our country the great money crop is corn. So our schools are all interested in corn. Some six hundred boys are growing corn under direction and showing it for prizes.

Each summer we hold a ten days' Boys' Farm Camp. Here country boys come together for instruction in corn and stock judging, working with the actual material. They have some literary work and something of practical religion. Each day there is military drill and games and sports. Each evening there is the camp newspaper.

The coming summer, we are going to try for the first time to have a girls' camp, also. The two camps will be separate but they will eat

together in one big dining-tent. The instructors and helpers are from the Extension Department of our State Agricultural College and from among our county Y.M.C.A. workers.

We hold, annually, for our country schools a County Boys' and Girls' Corn Show and Industrial Exposition. We have entries in corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, farm devices, handy knots, manual training, cooking, and sewing. At our industrial exposition just closed there were fifteen hundred entries. Thousands came to see the exhibit. A whole district of people—fathers, mothers, patrons, teacher, and boys and girls—would come together and spend the day, eating a picnic lunch together at noon.

The prizes offered were not very large but included several trophies. There was one beautiful trophy for the school district making the best collective exhibit—and how the school districts did work for that! Everybody worked together. One young man who brought down some entries told me that, when he left home, there were six men down using their fanning mill—the only one in the district—in order to get their exhibits of grain ready. After the trophy had been awarded a bright-faced young man came up proudly to claim that he was a hired man in the winning district. And no wonder the district won. Let me tell you just a word about their red-headed teacher. The German farmer where she boarded had some pretty good corn, but he had never shown corn and did not understand how to select a sample to show, so the teacher volunteered to select it and the sample won the prize. The teacher is a country girl who has been offered grade positions now for three years in succession but who teaches in the country through choice and because she likes country schools and country people. And in this district the school is the social center. Several times I have had the pleasure of drinking coffee and eating cake with the people gathered together at this school home. Ask them where they live and they answer, "In the Jackson School District," and they say it in a right hearty way, too.

When the annual county Parents' Day at school comes around, people in such school districts as this come together at their school, no matter how rough the roads or how cold the day. For nothing else has the strong hold on the people that the school has, if it is alive enough and interested enough in the community life to have a hold at all.

II. RURAL-SCHOOL EXTENSION

A. THROUGH BOYS' AND GIRLS' AGRICULTURAL CLUBS

F. W. HOWE

Supervisor of Agricultural Education, New York State

Boys' and girls' agricultural-club work as a form of rural-school extension usually centers in the competitive idea, utilized as a factor in the educational development of the individual and the community. These clubs had their origin (in New York) in certain prizes or other inducements to participate in some kind of productive contest. Thus we have come to find in the various states, clubs for corn growing, cotton growing, potato growing, fruit growing, poultry raising, live-stock study, bird study, baking, fruit canning, cooking, sewing, and home and school improvement, each with some special incentive set at the end of the work. All of these clubs have been more or less agricultural in their general character.

In many cases the work of these clubs has definitely assumed the character of school-extension work, and as such has had a very intimate relation to the regular work of the public school. The complete integration of the club work with the more usual lines of school activity logically eliminates the necessity or advantage of special or separate organization. And so we find schools giving more and more attention to various features of home or farm work, especially on certain set occasions like "corn day," "bird day," "arbor day," and the like. In the state of Ohio, for example, it is said that "agricultural clubs, as such, are coming to be a thing of the past," so fully are their interests merged with and served by the common public schools.

The junior agricultural club has a special field, however, until the work of the school is more generally and thoroughly communized, in performing a correlating function between the school and the home and in giving objective application to things learned from books and bulletins. The county superintendent of schools has an unusual opportunity to appreciate and utilize the pupils' interest in reality and in environment to the great advantage of the educational process within

the school and also in winning from patrons a larger and more intelligent support for school improvement.¹

The general advantages that may be expected from the inauguration of boys' and girls' club work have been demonstrated by abundant experience in clubs aggregating probably more than 200,000 members. They have been summarized as follows:

1. Individually the members of such clubs have been led to observe more closely, to recognize good and bad qualities in the products they have grown, and in the insects, fungi, and other various conditions affecting their work; they have met and learned to solve some problems in the improvement of plants, fruits, animals, and housework; they have learned that improvement in one direction is not always, or even usually, accompanied by improvement in all directions; they have learned something of the value of labor, the cost of production, and the keeping of simple accounts with different farm and household affairs; they have been encouraged to read good literature and have learned some of the sources of good agricultural literature; their views have been broadened by contact with others and by visiting institutions of learning, highly developed farms, and other places of interest; and, finally, the power of taking the initiative has in many cases been strongly developed in them as individual and responsible members of the community.

2. Collectively they have learned the value of organized effort, of co-operation, and of compromise; and the social instinct has been developed in them—a matter of great importance in rural districts, where the isolated condition of the people has long been a great hindrance to progress.

3. The influence upon the communities at large, the parents as well as the children, has been wholesome. Beginning with an awakened interest in one thing—better seed corn, for example—communities have rapidly extended their interest to other features of rural improvement, with the result that in the regions affected by the agricultural-club movement there has come about a general upward trend in the thoughts and activities of the people.

4. These club activities have in many instances exercised a very stimulating, if not a "redirecting," influence upon the ordinary work of rural schools and teachers.

5. The knowledge gained from the work of these clubs has demonstrated that the natural love of competition among boys and girls (as well as their elders) can be utilized to immense advantage in furthering their own education for efficiency.

¹ Detailed plans for the organization of 'junior agricultural clubs in connection with the public schools can be had in *Farmers' Bulletin* 385, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

The best evidence of the value of this type of school-extension interest can doubtless be had in reviewing the actual club work of boys and girls that has been carried on in several states. What is probably the first state-wide movement of this kind began about 1898, in New York, under the auspices of the State College of Agriculture of Cornell University, as a development from its nature-study lessons. The work was promoted largely through what was then called the *Junior Naturalist Monthly*, which has been superseded by the *Cornell Rural School Leaflet*, a publication which now reaches 75,000 members of the Cornell Farm Boys' and Girls' Clubs and about 7,000 teachers and school commissioners.

These clubs are individual school or district associations, with a simple, informal organization, and each has its own local name. Each elects a president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer, and a patron or patroness from among the adults of the school district. Each member is supplied with a distinctive button or badge.

The College of Agriculture attempts to interest the club members in each school in some definite, concrete thing to do each year. Thus in one year the Horticultural Department offered to send to each of the first hundred boys and girls who applied a dozen strawberry or raspberry plants or a half-dozen currant plants. Fifteen hundred requests were received and nine hundred supplied. Directions were given in the *Leaflet* for setting and caring for these plants through the season. Another year the Poultry Department agreed to send to a limited number of boys and girls who would write the best essay on "My Experience with Poultry" a setting of pure-bred eggs valued at \$1.25, express to be paid by the applicant. Six hundred essays were received and fifty settings of eggs sent. Another enterprise inaugurated by the college is an annual potato-growing contest for boys and girls. Each is to grow one-fourth of an acre, report his method of handling the crop, and write an essay on "How to Grow Potatoes." The prizes for this contest run from \$2 to \$15 in gold. Similar prizes are offered in a garden contest and for the best essay on "How I Kept a Garden." For the girl members a special list of prizes from \$1 to \$10 is offered for making the best loaf of bread, with an essay on "My Experiences in Bread Making."

The form of contest which attracts the largest attention, however, is the annual competition in corn growing. The prizes run from \$2

to \$15 in gold for highest yield, best report, and an essay on "How to Grow Corn." The prize-winning exhibits from each county are taken to the annual Corn Show at Cornell University. In the spring of 1909 there were nearly 450 ten-ear exhibits of corn at this show, held during "Farmers' Week," and about one-third of these came from 28 boys' and girls' clubs. There were also exhibited about 150 drawings on corn subjects, 150 essays, and 200 letters on "How We Celebrated Corn Day in Our School." This celebration of "Corn Day" has become an annual institution not only in the rural schools of New York but also in Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and several other states of the Middle West.

Agricultural-club work for boys in growing corn and for girls in sewing and cooking has been organized with great thoroughness throughout the entire state of Nebraska, under the leadership of State Superintendent E. C. Bishop, in connection with the Agricultural College of the State University, at Lincoln. The boys grow their show corn and vegetables under directions sent out from the state headquarters, and the girls practice baking in accordance with recipes sent out to the schools from the domestic-science department of the State University. Early in the fall a local contest is held in each school, the three prize-winning exhibits and the best three essays being then taken to a township show, then to a county exhibit, and finally to the state corn-growing and corn-cooking contest at Lincoln. This meeting includes a grand "corn banquet" which gathers from 2,000 to 3,000 boys and girls from over the state. The work in Nebraska is especially noteworthy because of the attention given to sewing and cooking for girls. Several bulletins have been issued giving particular and illustrated directions for exercises in these lines.

Similar work in Ohio, under the direction of the agricultural extension department of the State University, has reached practically all the rural boys and girls in the schools of the State. In Illinois this work began under the initiative of certain county superintendents of schools and in connection with the farmers' institutes. The organizing work of the Winnebago County superintendent of schools, O. J. Kern, has probably had the widest publicity. Here was introduced the feature of annual excursions of the club members and their parents to neighboring experiment fields and to state agricultural colleges. Club interest is also utilized in improving the school grounds and buildings

of the county. One session of the county farmers' institute is set apart for the club work, and agricultural specialists from other states as well as their own have been engaged to address these sessions.

Under similar county initiative this work was started in Iowa by County Superintendent Cap E. Miller, of Keokuk County, and by Miss Jessie Field, the superintendent of Page County. Club work for both boys and girls has also been successfully established in Berks County, Pa., by the county superintendent, E. M. Rapp. The boys in his clubs are provided with a button bearing the legend, "Boys' Agricultural-Club of Berks Co.—Better Farming." The corresponding badge for the girls' clubs carries the words, "Girls' Domestic Science Club of Berks Co.—Better Housekeeping."

Among the southern states, Texas and Georgia have been prominent in organizing this kind of work. The "Farmer Boys' and Girls' League" in the former state was organized in 1903 in connection with the Texas Farmers' Congress, and now numbers over 1,750 members. In Georgia this work has been directed by the State University, and the interest has been chiefly in corn and cotton growing and in the improvement of live stock.

A few of the more conspicuous and far-reaching outgrowths of junior agricultural-club work may here be profitably noticed. Attention has already been directed to the state-wide contests which culminate annually at the state agricultural colleges of New York, Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, and other states that might be mentioned. As a modification of this plan these state contests are sometimes concentrated at the annual state fair, and include not only awards for club exhibits by school pupils, but also for contests in the judging of such exhibits. The last Iowa state fair offered prizes ranging from \$25 to \$200 for boys in competitive corn judging and from \$25 to \$100 to girls offering the best-prepared food products, with reasons for the work done. A variation from this plan is followed by the Colorado state fair authorities in offering a scholarship worth \$125 in any of the regular courses at the state agricultural college to the boy doing the best work in judging live stock and corn and a scholarship worth \$100 in any college or university in Colorado to the girl showing the best work in the preparation of certain foods and giving reasons for the methods used.

A still more significant development of the agricultural-club influence in its relation to school-extension work may be seen in the range

and variety of prizes offered to boys and girls by the State Fair of Montana in 1908. These prizes range from \$2 to \$25 for exhibits of work teaching girls household service and home appreciation; of work in applied civics and school service to the community; evidence of co-operative neighborhood work for school building and ground improvement; children's garden work, with plans, photographs, and descriptions; arithmetic applied to industrial and business affairs of the school, home, and community; "field work" in geography; class record of weather observations for three months or more; plan of farm (drawn, modeled, or constructed), showing buildings, irrigation system, crop rotation, etc.; construction work done by any pupil, showing mechanical and inventive ability; and best single exhibit of courses of study, plans, etc., showing ways of making school instruction more valuable and connecting it more intimately and vitally with community life.

Still another outgrowth of the agricultural-club interest is seen in the organization of boys' summer encampments, combined with a "corn show" and careful instruction in the cultivation and breeding of corn. Such a "farm boys' encampment" at Glenview Farm, Mo., is described by S. M. Jordan in a bulletin of the Missouri Board of Agriculture. A noteworthy gathering of a similar kind was held for ten days in the summer of 1910 at Clarinda, Page County, Iowa, under the initiative of Miss Field. The "vacation farm school" proposed by Principal B. J. Horchem, of the Audubon School, Dubuque, Iowa, is a modification of this plan, providing for the educational employment of town boys based on nature-study observation in public parks and grounds during the summer vacation.

While not strictly carried on under the form of club organization, one of the most interesting fields of influence exerted by junior-extension work in agriculture is found in the South Atlantic and Gulf states, under the auspices of the Farmers' Co-operative Demonstration Work of the United States Department of Agriculture. Mr. O. B. Martin, formerly state superintendent of education in South Carolina, is now in charge of this line of work for boys under eighteen years of age. So far the work done by them has been mostly in growing corn and cotton, under careful directions sent from the Department and supervised by the local agents of the government in charge of demonstration work for adults. Teachers and county superintendents co-operate very cordially in many instances.

In the year 1909 the average production of corn by boys engaged in this co-operative work was sixty bushels per acre; but four of them made notable advances over this average. Bascomb Usher, of South Carolina, grew 152½ bushels on one acre; DeWitt Lundy, of Mississippi, 147 bushels; Elmer Halter, of Arkansas, 135 bushels; and Ralph Bellwood, of Virginia, 122 bushels. These four boys won prizes offered in their respective states which entitled them to a free excursion trip to the city of Washington, where they were presented with a special diploma of honor by Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture.

Under a similar plan in 1910 the following prize winners and results are reported by Mr. Martin:

Name	Address	No. Bushels	Cost per Bushel
Hughey A. Harden.....	Banks, Alabama.	120	32c.
Ira Smith.....	Silver, Arkansas.	110	8
Joseph Stone.....	Center, Georgia.	105½	29
Stephen G. Henry.....	Melrose, Louisiana.	130½	13.6
William Williams.....	Decatur, Mississippi.	140½	18
W. Ernest Starnes.....	Hickory, N.C.	140½	38
Floyd Gayer.....	Tishomingo, Oklahoma.	95½	8
Jerry H. Moore.....	Winona, S.C.	228½	43
Norman Smith.....	Covington, Tenn.	125½	
Wm. Rodger Smith.....	Karnes City, Texas.	83½	1.3½
Maurice Olgers.....	Sutherland, Virginia.	169	40

The trip to Washington for these boys included a presentation to President Taft, diplomas from Secretary Wilson, and a visit to Congress, Mount Vernon, the various government departments, the Congressional Library, the Zoölogical Gardens, and other places of interest. This experience will be worth much to their home communities as well as to themselves for life.

It is not uncommon for 500 to 1,000 people to gather at the county seats to witness the award of local certificates that are given in the process of sifting out the first prize-winners in the several states. During the year 1910 the governors and superintendents of education in eleven southern states gave diplomas of honor to all boys who produced as much as seventy-five bushels of corn per acre at a reasonable cost. This is having a marked effect in the increasing average of acre-production of corn in these states. And Mr. Martin says: "It will have something to do with reducing the cost of living also."

This work has now been organized in nearly six hundred counties

in the South, and government agents, public-school officers, and teachers have co-operated in the organization and instruction of the various local associations. On May 15, 1910, the memberships in these states—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia—aggregated 46,225. General public interest in their work is evidenced by the fact that merchants, bankers, and other public-spirited citizens offered more than \$40,000 worth of prizes, consisting of money, farm implements, excursion trips, ponies, pigs, bicycles, watches, and many other articles calculated to gladden the hearts of the youthful competitors.

In awarding prizes the following scheme has been adopted:

- a) Greatest yield per acre, weighted at.....30 per cent
- b) Best exhibit of 10 ears.....20 “ “
- c) Best written history of the crop.....20 “ “
- d) Best showing of profit.....30 “ “

Farm experts are selected to pass judgment on *a*) and *b*), and school officers and teachers on *c*) and *d*). In calculating items under *d*), \$5 is uniformly reckoned as the rent of an acre of land, 10 cents per hour for the work of each boy, 5 cents per hour for each horse used, \$2 for each two-horse load of stable manure, and current market prices for commercial fertilizers.

In leaving this field of educational extension the comment may be ventured that the boys and girls of the North, among whom agricultural-club work was first organized, must needs look to their laurels if they are not sooner or later outstripped by the youth of the Southland. For the sake of comparison, and in concluding this article, let us turn to the record of a northern state in which the writer has had some interesting personal experience in organizing such clubs.

The first corn-growing clubs for Michigan boys and girls were organized in three or four counties in 1908, under the initiative of Congressman J. C. McLaughlin in co-operation with D. J. Crosby of the Office of Experiment Stations and with the Michigan Corn Improvement Association. The next spring this work was extended to seven or eight counties, approximating 1,500 members. The reports for 1910 show that about twenty counties are now organized and the interest, as shown by prizes offered, is rapidly increasing. One county

has set the mark at \$1,000 for prizes to be offered in the boys' and girls' corn show, with at least \$2 to every exhibitor. In another county a thousand-dollar silver trophy, offered by one of the great breakfast food manufacturers, is being exhibited to arouse interest, together with the ear of corn which won this trophy last year. But undoubtedly the prize which excites the greatest enthusiasm among Michigan boys and girls this year is the one-thousand-dollar five-passenger touring car offered by a Lansing automobile company for the best ten ears of corn exhibited by any competitor under twenty years of age.

Perhaps the most concrete evidence of the widespread influence in this country of the competitive work of boys and girls in the line of agricultural and educational extension is to be seen in the Fourth International Corn Exposition at Columbus, Ohio, January 30 to February 11. Since the famous exhibit by fifteen hundred Illinois boys in the exposition at St. Louis in 1904, these exhibits have steadily improved in magnitude, quality, variety, and educational significance. It is not saying too much to suggest that the world-wide influence of the International Corn Exposition is due in no small degree to the factor represented by the enthusiastic interest of hundreds and thousands of associated boys and girls in this country; and it may not be too presumptuous to forecast the time when this junior agricultural-club movement may find a conspicuous place in the educational progress of every other leading nation as well as in the United States.

B. RELATION OF RURAL SCHOOL TO BETTER HOUSEKEEPING

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Through the public-school system we have found a means of stimulating an interest in, and actually developing, better agriculture practice on the farm. Moreover, we have learned that the farm and the farm community need more than simply better things in the field and in the barnyard. After all, that which does most to make the farm community a center of interest, and develops better business practice, better living, better ideals, happier existence, and stronger citizenship, is the farm home as influenced by those things in which the household is concerned.

For this reason, we are urging that hand in hand with the teaching of farm crops, farm animals, horticulture, and dairying, we should include domestic science, domestic art, gardening, and manual training in their relations to the home and the business of the farm.

Better housekeeping in farm homes means better farming and better citizenship. Too many farmers have become discouraged, disheartened, and discontented, and have failed to make the most of their opportunities and to make the best use of their energies, capital, and business ability, because of the adverse conditions in the farm home.

The farm home is therefore a vital question. It merits our close attention, our careful thought, and our best effort directed toward the establishing of the best there is in home making.

In establishing better practice on the farm, we have found a great waste of effort when directed through the older men. Their old habits and their ideas of what constitutes the best method of procedure are too firmly set to yield to ordinary influences. We must work largely with the young men. We can do this in a large way to best advantage with the boys whom we can reach through the school.

So it is with the farm home. The ordinary conscientious, hard-working farmer's wife has grown so accustomed to inconveniences,

hard work, and the omission of so many of the factors that count for joy, ease, and better home comfort, conveniences, and aesthetic relations, that she is too often slow to ask for a change or to accept the proffered gift of better things in her home. But we can reach the home through the school girl whose quick perception, intuitive instinct, and eager anticipation lead her to receive suggestions and to act in those things which attract and hold her interest.

I can here mention only one phase of the work which has done so much for better housekeeping through the public schools.

Nebraska has at this time enrolled in state, county, and district boys' and girls' clubs over 32,000 young people under 21 years of age. Of this number, 2,200 girls are enrolled in the Home Experiment Department conducted directly by the state department of public instruction. The following quotations taken from the announcement bulletin issued March, 1910, explains the plan:

We want to help a number of the most ambitious young people in each county to conduct some experimental work at home and to take up some definite work under the direction of the county superintendent and this department.

This will be known as the Home Experiment Department. The plan provides for a number of young people in each county some definite work in which they are to receive instruction and on which they are to report progress each month. We want for this special work only such boys and girls as will give particular attention and will be capable of getting results. Their work will form a substantial nucleus for the general county organization which can include in addition thereto whatever phases of work the county superintendent sees fit to introduce. It will put the work on an educational basis which will be helpful alike to the school and to the home in showing what can be accomplished by carefully directed, continuous effort.

To the boys and girls who became members of this department our plan is to send a pamphlet each month. These pamphlets will contain something of interest to every member.

Each month the members will be expected to report on some particular thing accomplished, depending upon the division of the work they enter. These reports are to be sent to the state superintendent of public instruction, Lincoln, Nebraska, and to the county superintendent if desired.

The instructions, pamphlets, and supplies are furnished members free. Each person on becoming a member must agree to carry out fully the directions and make the required reports.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE

Each member will receive each month from April to November, recipes and definite instructions for carrying on the work.

1. *Cookery*.—The work in cookery includes some of the best methods for the cooking and serving of nutritious foods, and the canning and preserving of some of the fruits in season each month. In connection with the instruction in canning and preserving, in June a bulletin will be sent on *Bacteria and Moulds: Preservation of Foods*.

General instructions in cookery: In all the work in cookery, the members of the club will be asked to conform to certain general rules in order that the measurements may be definite, and the results uniform.

The table of measurements is as follows:

3 teaspoonfuls (tsp.)	= 1 tablespoonful (tbsp.)
16 tsp.	= 1 cup (c.)
4 cups	= 1 quart (qt.)

All measurements are taken *level*. With a knife scrape off all excess from a spoon or cup when measuring either dry or liquid ingredients.

Flour is measured after sifting.

In preparing a recipe, as a general rule, all dry ingredients are mixed and sifted before adding the remaining ingredients.

In any recipe calling for beaten eggs, care must be taken to beat the egg immediately before using, as the egg does not have the same leavening power after standing.

2. *Butter-making*.—During the season a bulletin will be sent out on the sanitation and care of the milk and cream, churning of the cream, finishing and packing of the butter. Those entering this department will receive the bulletin and a blank report card for reporting the different items concerning the work. It is expected that classes will be provided in county contests for butter-making.

3. *Sewing*.—The work in sewing will be practical and the articles made will be those things which are necessary and useful to the girl.

During the season instructions and materials will be sent each one who becomes a member of this department and reports will be required.

In April, the samples of overhanding, hemming, hemming flannel, back stitching, and running will be finished according to directions, and returned.

In May, the stitching, overcasting, and felled seams; in June, the Dorothy seam, feather stitch, satin stitch, and French knots; in July, gathering on a band; in August, the making of a petticoat; in September, an underwaist; and in October, a canvas sofa pillow.

As these samples and questions are completed and returned to the office

they will be clamped together and the complete sewing book returned to the county superintendent to be handed to its owner.

In addition to the sewing book, there will be instructions for making those articles which will be made and used in the home. The club members will furnish their own material, and the state department the patterns and instruction necessary for hemming towels, making a sewing apron, holders, the making of a garden hat, marking of household linens, and the making of the large underwaist and petticoat after the model of the small ones.

In addition to this there will be patterns furnished for a complete outfit for a twelve-inch doll, and patterns for a complete outfit of infant clothes for a ten-inch doll.

In sewing, special care should be taken to keep the work as clean and neat as possible, to have the hands and nails clean, and a clean apron to protect the work.

A large towel or pillow case may be used to keep the work in when it is not being used.

4. *Sweet-pea culture*.—Instructions will be given for planting and care of sweet peas.

A sample page from the directions sent to the members by separate bulletins is printed below. Each bulletin contained the necessary pieces of sample cloth, thread, needles, hooks and eyes, and buttons for doing the practice work outlined for sewing. These samples were returned by mail to the state superintendent after the member had performed the required work. The articles made remained the property of the girl and were generally exhibited at the local or county-school exhibits. The directions quoted are for May, the second month of the course.

1. COOKING

Pot roast.—Select a four- or five-pound piece of beef from the rump, wipe with a damp cloth, trim off all excess fat. Put in a kettle with one pint of boiling water, cover very tightly. Let simmer slowly until tender when pierced with a fork—about four hours—adding a little water as needed. Thirty minutes before removing from the fire add 1 teaspoon salt and $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon pepper.

At the end of four hours the meat should be a rich brown color, and so tender that the fat and bone will naturally separate itself from the lean of the meat when lifted out on the platter.

Brown gravy.—Add enough boiling water to the liquor in the kettle to make $1\frac{1}{2}$ cups. Let boil, and beat in with a fork $\frac{1}{2}$ cup water and $\frac{1}{4}$ cup flour which have been thoroughly rubbed together.

Boil three minutes, season, and strain if necessary.

Dumplings.—

1 cup flour	$\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon salt
1 teaspoon baking powder	2 teaspoons butter
	$\frac{3}{4}$ cup milk or water

Mix and sift the dry ingredients, rub in butter with tips of fingers, add milk gradually, stirring with a knife. Place by tablespoonfuls on buttered pie tin, steam for twelve minutes. Arrange on the platter with meat, a spoonful of gravy over each dumpling.

II. SEWING

Overhanding.—Materials required:

Cross-bar muslin: 6 inches long and 4 inches wide.

Thread: No. 80 white cotton.

Needle No. 10.

Cut the cross-bar muslin in two pieces, each 6 inches long and 2 inches wide. Trim evenly on all sides, leaving no frayed edges. See that all corners are perfect.

Carefully turn, baste, and hem sides (1) to (2), (3) to (4), (5) to (6), and (7) to (8) according to the directions in the last lesson.

Overhanding is the sewing together of folds or selvages with small stitches taken over the edges.

Baste together pieces (A) and (B) holding right sides together with edges (4) to (3) and (5) to (6) together.

The directions for overhanding continue through another half-page and are followed by directions and pattern for making a "machine-made apron."

The cooking recipes for other months included: Chinese muffins, cocoa, emergency puddings, warm apple sauce, hard sauce, canned cherries, white bread, baked pears, blackberry jam, preserved strawberries.

The work in cooking and sewing has been instrumental in the adoption of better methods, better ideas, and better ideals in the homes reached and in the bringing-about of better home conditions in the communities.

The quality of work done by these girls in their homes, working from printed directions, with the encouragement given by the teacher, is such that there is no doubt about the effectiveness of this plan to secure good work and to introduce a new element of interest and activity in the home, and at the same time to vitalize the work of the school.

III. RURAL-SCHOOL LIBRARIES

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More than half a century ago provision was made at great expense for public libraries in rural communities. These were to be kept at district schoolhouses. Although great care was taken to select books that would be both entertaining and instructive, the collection was not what we would call the best, for this movement was one of those much-needed movements that came long before the people were ready for it or before much thought had been given to the writing of books for children. In this collection of books were found volumes on agriculture and other industries. Those who read these volumes were much helped by the science information of the time.

Only a very few of the people were given to looking upon the cultural value of the library and still fewer to the help that might be given through the books to the industries, especially to agriculture. No serious thought or consideration needed to be given to science for the maintenance of soil fertility, etc. The virgin soil, when drained, produced about all that was needed for home consumption and the far-away market.

The establishing of village and city libraries during the time of the old academies was productive of a culture that has been projected into the better strata of society in those villages and cities. These, with other educational advantages, have caused the rural resident to look with envious eye upon his village or city neighbor.

The establishing of the rural-school library gives to the country resident, whether youth or adult, an opportunity to avail himself of just as good reading material as is afforded his village or city friend. There may be assigned three good reasons why the farmer and his children should seek reading material; the first and least important is for pastime. His isolation and lack of opportunity for immediate social intercourse makes reading in the home very necessary. Some danger may arise from a haphazard selection of books for the sole purpose of pastime and the result be baneful rather than helpful. Second,

for elevation and his own inspiration; even though there is much work to be done on the farm, there comes a time in the long winter evenings that can and should be given over to association with the best men and women through their writings. The school library as a central point from which books may be obtained for general reading in the home should, and does in most instances, offer a safeguard against the selection of books that contain nothing in particular to commend them. The school superintendent, a few teachers, and one or two well-informed citizens of the community usually find it a duty delegated to them to make the selection of volumes for the school library. Their careful observation and wide reading make them competent to select such books. Third, that the habit of reading may be acquired. One who has formed such a habit cannot be satisfied until he has something at hand to read. In the years of early youth habits of any kind are most easily formed; hence, if a reading habit is to be fixed, young people must have an opportunity to secure books that are not only suited to their needs but also to their desires. During certain periods in the lives of children they want stories that are quite imaginative; then they demand great activity; later, the story-book must tell of heroic deeds performed; and still later the young reader prefers a high-grade love story in the central figure of which the very amorous nature of the child finds itself embodied. Following this, he seeks the leader who may be found in the pages of history, commanding an army of men or undertaking and completing some great engineering enterprise.

The rural school comes a little nearer than any other organization to being the center of a variety of community interests. A greater percentage of the people of any community can be reached from the little country schoolhouse than can be reached through the public libraries or through the schools of a city when an equal number of people in each place is considered. The frequent communication of the rural home with the rural school through the child who attends it, brings the little library into close contact with that home. For this reason, if for no other, it is a little nearer to the people who support it than is the city library.

The country-school library leads to much reading at the fireside. The natural result is that more small private libraries are built up in the homes than would be had there been no opportunity for general reading in the home. In some communities it has been found that

prior to the establishing of the library at school the number of books in the homes could be counted on the fingers of one hand. Sometimes the Bible, the last agricultural report, and a Hagerstown almanac made up the library for young and old. The same home, or others like it, has coming to it some low-grade story paper or so-called agricultural paper whose subscription price is something like ten cents for three or perhaps five years.

SELECTING THE BOOKS

The selecting of books for any library should be determined much as has already been suggested. The subject-matter should be elevating and the style suited to the predominant characteristics of the child at the period in which the book is most likely to be read. It is useless to discuss the tastes for different kinds of reading matter as may be noticed in the two sexes. A small library can reflect only to a very small degree the cause for the difference in taste between boys' and girls' choice of reading material. Since so many of these library books must be selected with a view to establishing the reading habit in both old and young, the size and number of the pages should not be left out of consideration. Those who have not formed the reading habit will invariably pick up a small book, look at it to see how profusely it is illustrated, and then turn to see how many pages there are. The rural districts are not alone in having a few here and there who take a kind of pride in telling that they have never read any book through. These, too, can be reached if the age and some one or two of their peculiar characteristics are kept in mind in the selecting of books. Book companies are so very aggressive in marketing their goods that they make up stock libraries from their own publications, ranging in price from \$5.00 to \$25.00 and too often school-board members as well as teachers are willing to spend what money they have for a set of such reading matter or hand-me-down libraries. The very best books are often to be found published by firms about whom little or nothing is known. It pays to seek the book and the publisher. Some of the old novels and stories such as *Sartor Resartus*, *Mill on the Floss*, *Adam Bede*, *Reveries of a Bachelor*, *Baron Munchausen*, Prescott's *Conquest of Mexico*, and *Hero and Hero Worshipers* take up space in some of the so-called rural-school libraries. There is no doubt but that these are worth reading, but the reading habit will not be formed

very soon where a library is stocked up on such books as these that have been bought for a quarter apiece or even less at some cheap book store or mail-order house. The number of books never made a library. One hundred books, well selected, are worth a thousand that merely take up shelf room or a lesser number that have nothing but green or red bindings and gilt letters to commend them. The little district-school library should have, besides the literature, stories of history and geography, and many books on nature, games, etc. Here, too, is the opportunity to introduce elementary texts on industrial subjects.

Books selected for the State Pupils' Reading Course are suited to the needs of children in the elementary grades and ought to be a part of every school library. In the list appended such books will be found as have been chosen for the Ohio Pupil's Reading Course. In supervised schools there should be a few texts on general pedagogical subjects.

MEANS OF RAISING MONEY FOR BOOKS

Rural people have very seldom been the beneficiaries of any of the gifts of Carnegies or Rockefellers in sufficient amounts to do much good for the building of libraries. One man at Granger, Medina County, Ohio, bequeathed \$1,000, the income from which is to be used annually for purchasing books for the school library. A member of the Royal Baking Powder Company, a former Miami County man, gave very liberally to the fund of a township-school library in Bethel Township of his native county. Not many such bequests or donations are on record. The proceeds from socials, fêtes, commencements, and lecture courses (if any money remains from the lecture course) have been used to build up the libraries. If the township is the school unit and the little libraries are to be located in district-school buildings, then the public funds of the township should be used for the purchasing of books, that the people of each community or each school district may have an opportunity to read much the same books. In the state of Ohio, township boards of education are authorized to appropriate annually \$250 from the school funds for district-school libraries. Judging from both experience and observation, the writer is of the opinion that at least 300 books of the same title and binding should be found in each school-house. In addition to these there ought to be a number of books that are of different titles and authorship, and perhaps more expensive, which may be boxed and circulated from school to school in the township.

Where no library is maintained, advantage should be taken of circulating libraries such as are maintained by a good many states in connection with the State Library at the capital city. These boxes contain from forty to fifty books and can be secured upon application and retained for the school year. Usually the only charge is the expressage to and from the state library. Three hundred books are sufficient for the permanent district-school library unless a habit of excessive or disproportionate reading is entered into; i.e., the fourth-grade child who reads from ten to fifteen books in a year and does the work assigned from his texts for recitation has attempted quite enough. While the danger arising from excessive reading may not be so great as from not reading at all, yet it remains to be said that the average American youth who has the unrestrained reading habit is often gorged with good matter that is not allowed time for proper mental digestion. Again, let it be said that it is not how large a library is that determines its good qualities but rather how nearly it comes to being suited to the different periods and conditions of the child and to the work to be done in the school and in the community. A removal of the possibilities for excessive reading in any one of these periods is to be brought about by avoiding an over-supply of books on any subject; in the degree that books are selected along the lines of these subjects, in that degree the reading of the community as well as that of the school can be controlled. It is not to be denied that there is such a thing as excessive reading both in the school and in the home. Here is one more opportunity for the teacher to use her tact in directing the attention of the children to the particular work assigned them for class and to co-operate with the parents toward helping the child to be considerate of his manual duties in the home. It is about as difficult to control or regulate excessiveness in doing a good thing beyond keeping it in harmony with one's duties along other lines as it is to establish a right habit.

THE CARE OF BOOKS

The indifference of teachers and others to the use to which libraries are placed causes such large losses that many school boards and others interested in the library movement have become discouraged and it is difficult to secure sufficient money to re-establish what once was. In some township high schools a boy or a girl is appointed and paid as a librarian, to give out, record, and note the return of books from the

library. In some places the librarian devotes a few minutes after school to this work. Whether the library is one for township high schools or for the district school, the necessity for recording the going and coming of the books is imperative.

In one township in Ohio where there are over 5,000 books in its district schools, practically no books have been lost, because of the careful records kept. Twice a year the teachers are required to check up the books, once at the holidays and once at the close of the year. Many books have been worn out but they have been replaced by new ones. The books should be kept in neat and attractive cases with glass doors through which the titles of the books can be seen. This is one means of attracting the reader to the contents of the book. The case makes a valuable and attractive piece of furniture in the schoolroom and the books are oftentimes given the care that would not be given them if they were lying around on dustladen shelves, window sills, cupboards, and other dirty places. In the school there should also be found a table on which a few books may be placed temporarily. On this table should be found a clean little newspaper such as *The Pathfinder* and an elevating story magazine such as *Our Young People* or *The Youth's Companion*.

The end or aim of all that has been said concerning the encouragement of the habit of reading, the selection of books, the means of establishing and maintaining the library, and the care that should be taken of the books is that the library may become a permanent part of the school equipment, that the rural school may become a more helpful social and educational center for the community supporting it.

The appended list of books, classified under three heads and assigned to certain grades, has been used for several years in each of thirteen district schools in Springfield Township, Clark County, Ohio. Many other libraries are found in the rural schools of Ohio but none where the same care has been taken to make the selection and preserve the books.

LIBRARY CATALOGUE, SPRINGFIELD TOWNSHIP, CLARK CO., OHIO

LITERATURE

	May be read by pupils of grades
A Man without a Country (E. E. Hale)	6, 7, 8
American Literature Primer (Mildred Watkins)	6, 7, 8
*Beautiful Joe (Sanders)	5, 6

* Books marked (*) adult readers will enjoy.

	May be read by pupils of grades
*Being a Boy (Warner)	6, 7, 8
*Birds' Christmas Carol (Wiggin)	4, 5, 6
Black Beauty (Sewell)	4, 5, 6
Christmas Carol (Dickens)	7, 8
Child Life in Poetry and Prose (Whittier)	3, 4, 5
Courtship of Miles Standish (Longfellow)	7, 8
6 Cyr Primers (Ellen Cyr)	1, 2
Dog of Flanders (Ramée)	5, 6, 7
Don Quixote (Cervantes)	7, 8
Eugene Field Book	5, 6, 7, 8
*Evangeline (Longfellow)	7, 8
Fables and Folk Stories (Scudder)	2, 3
6 First Readers (Cyr, Brumbaugh, Stickney)	2
*Five Little Peppers (Sidney)	5, 6, 7, 8
*Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill (Holmes)	7, 8
Hans Andersen's Stories	4, 5, 6
*Hoosier School Boy (Eggleston)	5, 6, 7
*Hoosier School Master (Eggleston)	7, 8
*Irving's Sketch Book	7, 8
Ivanhoe (Scott)	7, 8
King of the Golden River (Ruskin)	5, 6, 7, 8
Letters to Farm Boys (Wallace)	7, 8
*Little Lord Fauntleroy (Burnett)	4, 5, 6
Little Nell (Dickens)	6, 7, 8
Odysseus	7, 8
*Old Fashioned Girl (Alcott)	6, 7, 8
Oliver Twist (Dickens)	7, 8
Open Sesame (Bellamy & Goodwin), Vol. I	4, 5
Open Sesame, Vol. II	5, 6
Open Sesame, Vol. III	7, 8
Our Country in Poetry and Song	6, 7, 8
Paul Revere and Other Poems (Longfellow)	6, 7, 8
*Pilgrim's Progress (Bunyan)	7, 8
*Rip Van Winkle (Irving)	7, 8
Rhymes of Childhood (Riley)	6, 7, 8
Riverside Primer and Reader (Scudder)	1, 2
Robinson Crusoe (Abridged: DeFoe)	3, 4
6 Second Readers (Cyr, Brumbaugh, Stickney)	2, 3
*Snow Bound (Whittier)	7, 8
*Spyri's Heidi	6, 7, 8

* Books marked (*) adult readers will enjoy.

May be read by
pupils of grades

Stories for Children (Lane).....	1, 2
Swiss Family Robinson (Wyss).....	7, 8
Tales from Shakespeare (Lamb).....	7, 8
Talks about Authors.....	6, 7, 8
2 Third Readers (Cyr, Brumbaugh).....	3, 4
*Tom Brown's School Days (Hughes).....	7, 8
Tanglewood Tales (Hawthorne).....	6, 7, 8
*Uncle Tom's Cabin (Stowe).....	7, 8
Verse and Prose for Beginners.....	2, 3
Whittier's Poems.....	7, 8

HISTORY

American Life and Adventure (Eggleston).....	3, 4, 5
Beginners' American History (Montgomery).....	4, 5, 6
Biographical Stories (Hawthorne).....	6, 7, 8
Boyhood of Famous Americans.....	4, 5
Colonial Children (Pratt).....	4, 5, 6
Conquest of the Old North-West (Baldwin).....	7, 8
Discoverers and Explorers.....	4, 5, 6
Four American Inventors.....	6, 7, 8
*Four American Naval Heroes.....	6, 7, 8
*Four American Patriots.....	6, 7, 8
*Four American Pioneers.....	6, 7, 8
*Four American Poets.....	6, 7, 8
*Four Famous American Writers.....	6, 7, 8
*Four Great Americans.....	5, 6, 7
*Fifty Famous Stories Retold (Baldwin).....	3, 4, 5
*Franklin, Benjamin, Autobiography of.....	7, 8
Girls Who Became Famous (Bolton).....	7, 8
*Grandfather's Chair (Hawthorne).....	6, 7, 8
Grandfather's Stories (Johonnot).....	3, 4
Great American Educators (Winship).....	
Great Americans for Little Americans (Eggleston).....	2, 3, 4
Great Artists (Horne and Scobey).....	6, 7, 8
Heroic Deeds (Johonnot).....	4, 5, 6
History of Education (Kemp).....	
Lincoln, Abraham, Life of.....	7, 8
Lives of the Presidents.....	6, 7, 8
Old Bay State (Brooks).....	7, 8
Old Dominion (Cooke).....	7, 8

* Books marked (*) adult readers will enjoy.

May be read by
pupils of grades

Old France (Pitman)	7, 8
Old Greek Stories (Guerber)	7, 8
*Olden Time (Johonnot)	5, 6, 7
*Our Country (Johonnot)	5, 6, 7
Pennsylvania (Walton and Brumbaugh)	7, 8
Poor Boys Who Became Famous (Bolton)	7, 8
*Short Stories from English History (Blaisdell)	6, 7, 8
Spanish-American War	6, 7, 8
Spanish in the South-West (Winterburn)	7, 8
Stories of the Chosen People (Guerber)	7, 8
Story of Lafayette	6, 7, 8
*Stories of Ohio (Howells)	6, 7, 8
*Tales from Ohio History (Venable)	6, 7, 8
*Ten Boys (Andrews)	5, 6, 7
True Citizens (Markwich and Smith)	7, 8
The Young Citizen (Dole)	7, 8
*Thirteen Colonies (Guerber)	5, 6, 7
*Uncle Sam's Secrets (Austin)	7, 8
Washington and His Country (Irving and Fisk)	7, 8
*Washington, George, Life of (Scudder)	6, 7, 8

SCIENCE

About the Weather (Harrington)	7, 8
Agriculture for Beginners (Burkett, Hill, and Stevens)	7, 8
American Indian (Starr)	5, 6, 7
Around the World, Part I (Carroll)	2, 3
Around the World, Part II (Carroll)	3, 4
Around the World, Part III (Carroll)	4, 5
*Asia (Carpenter)	6, 7, 8
Australia (Carpenter)	6, 7, 8
Aunt Martha's Corner Cupboard (Kirby)	4, 5
Birds and Bees (Burroughs)	7, 8
Child Book of Health (Blaisdell)	4, 5, 6
Child Life in the Country	3, 4
Children of the Cold (Schwatka)	4, 5, 6
Each and All (Andrews)	3, 4, 5
*Europe (Carpenter)	6, 7, 8
Feathers and Furs (Johonnot)	3, 4
First Book of Birds	5, 6, 7, 8
First Principles of Agriculture (James)	Adults

* Books marked (*) adult readers will enjoy.

May be read by
pupils of grades

Home Geography (Long)	3, 4
Home Geography (Farr and McMurry)	3, 4, 5
Insect World (Fignier)	7, 8
*Life on a Farm (Shepard)	7, 8
Little People of the Snow	3, 4, 5
*Lobo, Rag, and Viven (Thompson)	6, 7, 8
*North America (Carpenter)	5, 6, 7
Our World Reader (Hall)	4, 5, 6
Our Bodies (Blaisdell)	7, 8
Playtime and Seedtime (Parker and Helm)	2, 3
Practical Agriculture (Bailey)	Adults
Principles of Agriculture (Goff and Mayne)	7, 8
Rural School Agriculture (University of Minnesota)	7, 8
Seven Little Sisters (Andrews)	3, 4, 5
*Sharpeyes and Other Papers (Burroughs)	7, 8
Shy Neighbors (Kelley)	4, 5, 6
*South America (Carpenter)	6, 7, 8
Stories of Animal Life (Bass)	2, 3
Stories of Big People and Little People (Shaw)	4, 5, 6
Stories of Indian Children	3, 4, 5
Stories of Insect Life, Part I	3, 4, 5
Stories of Insect Life, Part II	3, 4, 5
Stories of Plant Life (Bass)	2, 3
The Sciences (Holden)	7, 8
Triumphs of Science (Lane)	7, 8
Uncle Robert's Visit (Parker and Helm)	3, 4, 5
Wings and Fins (Johannot)	

* Books marked (*) adult readers will enjoy.

IV. THE RURAL SCHOOL AS A MEANS OF DEVELOPING AN APPRECIATION OF ART (INDOOR AND OUTDOOR)

O. J. KERN

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The reader should not be misled by the title of this article. There will be no attempt to discuss this from the artist's point of view. What follows is a simple story of twelve years' effort to secure more attractive school grounds and schoolhouses among the people who live in the open country. At this stage of development perhaps the terms Outdoor and Indoor Art as applied to the country school are not the most fitting ones.

I became county superintendent of schools in December, 1898. It took me about one year to learn conditions so that I might know what the problem really is, so far as the physical conditions of the country school are concerned. There were then 118 school grounds and houses, many of them far from being an inspiration to the boys and girls who frequented them more or less regularly and lovingly. The problem was how to arouse 150 school teachers, 360 school directors, 4,000 school children, and the patrons in general to undertake some movement to better conditions. Some of them have not yet been aroused. I am living in hopes that they will yet see a light.

We began with the teachers. The county was divided into four divisions with a monthly meeting in each division for six months of the year beginning with September. These were local meetings for work, and were aside from the annual teachers' institute which is held the last week of March. The county superintendent attended every one of these local meetings, and he required no teacher to do more reading or study than he himself was willing to do. By the development of the interurban trolley system in this county he has been able to consolidate these four divisions into two. This gives him more Saturdays for office work. But these local teachers' meetings have been the great means of securing unity of educational purpose and effort. Once a month the teachers come together for the round-table discussions on ways and means to

arouse a strong, healthy public sentiment among the farmers for better houses and more attractive school grounds. We never talked to the farmers about "The Ethical and Esthetic Influences of Outdoor and Indoor Art," as factors for the moral regeneration of the "rural regions." The farmer must be met on his own ground. If you tell a farmer in Winnebago County that "the cow runs," he understands that at once. And that simple statement is all there is to it anyway. But a simple statement oftentimes is not used by us teachers. Instead of "the cow runs," we say rather that "the bovine quadruped in response to external stimuli finds immediate expression in discharges of motor activities." You can imagine a farmer standing around watching his cow "motor" along like that!

But when you tell a farmer that the schoolhouse should be as good in equipment and management as the best dairy barn or creamery, not to make money but to develop character, you are meeting him on common ground. And at the same time if you can show him a picture of school-room improvement, the impression is all the greater. For this reason I make much of the camera, the printing-press, and stereopticon, so that farmers may hear with their eyes as well as with their ears. Indeed sight is far more effective than sound. A picture on a screen before a country audience results in things being done. A learned paper on art before the same audience puts them to sleep.

Likewise when you tell a farmer that the country school grounds should measure up with those of the best farm home grounds in beauty he will not fail to catch your meaning. He does not yet understand much about the best approved principles of landscape planting. He will not appreciate very much along this line in a theoretical discussion from some club woman who believes she has a mission to "uplift" the rural landscape at a farmers' institute meeting. But there is great promise with the children of these same farmers if only the teacher and superintendent value the opportunity they now have to create new ideals among these same children through the medium of the country school.

An earnest, enthusiastic supervising officer (please emphasize the idea of enthusiasm) can fully appreciate the value of the momentum acquired by earnest co-operation and counsel of country-school teachers through twelve years of regular teachers' meetings supplemented by live teachers' institutes. Once arouse the teachers and you cannot fail to get the children. And with the children engaged you are sure to get most

of the parents out on the firing line. This means plenty of hard work, but that is the price of success.

Of course the first thing emphasized in these teachers' local meetings was better schoolroom work and methods in carrying out the course of study. This is fundamental, for a teacher's first business is to teach school and to teach it so well that the confidence of the patrons is assured. This paper will not go into details on methods and management as far as the schoolroom work is concerned. But good reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, etc., will more likely bring trees and vines to the school grounds and pictures and curtains to the schoolroom than the lack of good results in the three R's. A teacher who does good schoolroom work will soon find a way to enlist her district to improve grounds and building.

Of course we read books and bulletins. I secured all the bulletins I could from the United States Department of Agriculture; the American Park and Outdoor Art Association, now the American Civic Association; and the *Youth's Companion*. These were given to the teachers and mailed to school officers and leading farmers. We made use of Arbor Day Annuals and tried to see to it that we did more than simply engaging in a pleasant conversation about trees instead of actually planting them. To be specific, there is bulletin No. 134, *Tree Planting on Rural School Grounds*, issued by the United States Department of Agriculture. This I sent to two hundred teachers, to three hundred and fifty school directors, and to about one thousand farmers. I wanted them to know that trees would grow on country-school grounds if given a fair chance. The table of contents of this bulletin is as follows: "Reasons for School-Ground Planting"; "Arbor Day and School-Ground Planting"; "Preliminary Arrangements for Planting"; "What Planting to Do"; "Kinds of Trees to Plant"; "Obtaining the Trees"; "How to Plant the Trees"; "Why Trees Die in Transplanting"; "Care of Trees after Planting"; "Studies for the Teacher and School"; "Facts about Trees."

The above is a sample of the material used to inoculate the people with the bacteria of school improvement.

In 1901 I began to use the camera in earnest, taking pictures of local conditions good and not quite so good. Good half tones were made by firms who did good work and were used on first-class paper. During the last nine years my annual report has gone into every home in the county outside of the city of Rockford. The reports for 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, and 1910 represent a total number of

50,000 copies at a cost of \$7,500. These reports are well illustrated and printed on the best of paper. The effort is to have nothing but a thing of real artistic merit to go into the country homes. This is surely raising the standards in art appreciation, so far as the fundamental principles can be set forth in this way. These reports contain pictures of things that have been done in various schools in the county and thus prove an incentive to more backward communities to progressive effort. Illustrations of good planting effects outside of the county are shown, so the people may get better ideals.

The reader will not ask for any reports previous to 1910, for the supply has long since been exhausted. These reports must be of some value, the writer hopes, for requests have come from all over the United States for the privilege of purchasing these in lots. Fully 1,000 copies of each report could have been disposed of in this way. But that was not the purpose in issuing them.

Right here the reader, if he is a county superintendent, will say that his county board will not allow him to issue an illustrated annual report of 6,000 copies at a cost of \$1,000. Neither would mine when I began. My first attempt was a booklet, costing about \$25, of about 200 copies for vestpocket use. This was in 1899. The one for 1900 cost a little more; the one for 1901 had a few pictures in it; the 1902 report, more fully illustrated, cost \$442 for 3,000 copies. From then on the reports increased in quality and price. The board said in effect that since I was securing results I should not be hampered so far as the use of the printing-press and camera were concerned, so long as I kept within reasonable limits. At one time a member of the county board on plea of economy made a motion that the county superintendent be limited to \$600 in the preparation of his annual report. After a thorough discussion this was lost by a vote of 18 to 9. The reader will pardon this detail. But the use of the printing-press and the camera must come as a gradual growth to show **IMPROVED CONDITIONS THROUGH THE COUNTRY SCHOOLS OF THE COUNTY**. When a board of supervisors sees results then one can count on its reasonable support. No county superintendent should ask for more. And there are coming to my desk from time to time annual reports, illustrated, from various county superintendents of the United States, showing that other county boards are co-operating in this respect.

I make much use, as indicated above, of the stereopticon. I have

nearly 1,000 lantern slides, many of them beautifully colored to illustrate beautifying school grounds in the matter of planting trees, flowers, shrubs, vines; school-garden work; schoolroom decoration and sanitation; consolidation; agricultural education; better country-home conditions, etc. These are used at parents' meetings, teachers' institutes, and farmers' institutes throughout the county. Our annual teachers' institute is held the last week of March. Many plans are made during that week and much material is distributed. These teachers go right into their schools at the close of the week's institute and begin to do some of the things talked about during the week. We have had a traveling art exhibit—one of the Horace K. Turner traveling exhibits of Boston—at several of our weekly teachers' institutes. These have enabled teachers to study pictures and thus know better how to select a good picture for the schoolroom. We have had reading courses on picture-study. Burrage and Bailey's *School Sanitation and Decoration* was studied one year, and copies of the books have been put into our traveling libraries.

Books of both outdoor and indoor art, well illustrated, have gone into our traveling libraries for the country schools. We now have 112 boxes of books, representing 7,100 volumes, costing \$3,800. It is not my task to write about the traveling library as a means of increasing the usefulness of the country school as a social center. In addition to the 112 traveling libraries, over 8,000 volumes have been put into the local school libraries. Of course we should study Nature, in landscape, cloud, sky, stream, and roadside, for a keener appreciation of beauty. But books can help us to appreciate the out-of-doors. And every child who reads six books under the direction of the teacher is given a library diploma at our township graduation exercises held in each township in June. Here is the opportunity to train a rising generation to be better readers. So good books on the general subjects of planting grounds and decorating schoolrooms, and bound volumes of such magazines as *Country Life in America*, are placed in our traveling libraries and thus are proving valuable means of developing an appreciation of good things. The taste for better things is being created through both the natural world surrounding the child and through books. The full fruition of this work will come of course when the children of today become the men and women of a better tomorrow in country life. It takes about a generation to change the ideals of the people along these lines.

Our township graduation exercises bring the patrons and schools of the township together and are surely developing a greater interest in the matter of school improvement. Ofttimes the programs, wholly or in part, are planned to emphasize important phases of outdoor and indoor art. These are social as well as educational occasions. More of a unity is becoming apparent. One cannot state specifically just how many trees were planted, or how many pictures were placed in schoolrooms, or whether this board of directors tinted the walls of this particular schoolroom because of an emphasis placed on these things by the children in their program at the Town Hall last June. But anyway such things are following after.

In this matter of developing art appreciation for the country school too much emphasis, it seems to me, cannot be placed upon the value of educational work with the teachers in teachers' meetings and the annual institute. Mention was made above of a traveling art exhibit at the annual teachers' institute the last week of March. In addition to the several thousand dollars worth of reproductions of the pictures of the world's best painters hanging on the walls of the high-school building where the institute was held, there were many books on art and artists. These books were loaned by the Rockford City Library for use during the entire week of the institute. One period a day was set aside for library reading and picture-study. Another period was used by the county superintendent in talks about certain pictures, their proper framing and adaptability to the schoolroom. It would consume too much space to give that list of books here. Some of those books and newer ones, as stated above, have been put into our traveling libraries to help the teachers carry out the picture-study outlined for each month in the Illinois Course of Study used in our country schools.

In addition to my illustrated annual report of 100 pages which goes into every country and village home of the county, many illustrated articles were prepared by me and run in the local newspapers. One must say the same thing over several times in this matter of developing new educational sentiment for a better country school—say it, of course, in a new and more striking way if possible. Simply circularizing the school directors once or calling the attention of the teachers once or twice to a subject will accomplish but little. This has been my experience. But the matter has been emphasized again and again and again during the past twelve years. I shall expect to repeat for the next

four years; not exactly "repeat," but present the same claims in a newer and more forcible way if possible.

The articles, illustrated of course, as a picture is so effective, cover such subjects as "School Sanitation and Decoration"; "Results in School-Garden Work"; "Course in Art Reading"; "Beauty in Schools"; "Some Educational Forces in the Country School"; "Art in the School-room"; "Beautifying the School Houses"; "Prizes for Neat School Grounds"; "Gardens and Trees for District Schools"; "Outdoor Art for Home and School"; "Art Collection at the High School," etc.

The landscape department of the Illinois College of Agriculture has prepared planting plans for our country-school grounds. These designs set forth in picture the best principles of planting, or the A, B, C of beauty, viz., "A," leave open spaces; "B," plant in masses; "C," avoid straight lines. These planting plans are run in my annual reports and the local press, together with views of grounds planted on this scheme after several years' growth. Slides are also made of these plans and used at teachers' meetings, farmers' institute meetings, etc. The Consolidated School at Seward in this county, the first one in Illinois, has a large school ground of nearly four acres. This is being planted according to plan. Much has been done and much remains to be done. This outdoor art does not come in sixty or ninety days. It is a growth, and the fuller fruition will come when the children of today become the forces of a better tomorrow in country life. Mr. Horace K. Turner, of Boston, donated several hundred dollars worth of fine pictures and casts for the Seward School.

A second consolidated school has been built in Winnebago County. This is a \$17,000 building on three acres of ground. In conversation with the president of the school board the other day he said the grounds must be beautified next spring according to some definite plan. So the taste is growing. That there is *growth* is the most comforting thing to me, no matter if results are slow at first or first attempts are not up to the superintendent's finest ideals. In this second consolidated school the school board will treat the walls with good color and give a good treatment in color to the woodwork. Pictures will come in due time. This will serve as an education in interior decoration for the country homes. It was my pleasure last week to take several interior views of a country home recently erected. It would rejoice the reader to see the decoration in color of that farmer's home. Colored lantern slides will be made of these views to show other farmers how it is possible to have

the artistic country home out in the open country beside the country road.

Mention was made of outdoor art being emphasized at our township graduation exercises. As a concrete example the program for Rockford Township is given here. Typewritten material was furnished to the program committee for part of the numbers. The names of pupils are omitted.

1. Piano solo --The Alpine Storm.
2. The White Oak.
3. The Vine on the School House.
4. Vocal solo.
5. Improvement of School Grounds.
6. Plant Trees and Protect the Birds.
7. Seed-planting.
8. Cornet solo.
9. Short talk by State Superintendent.
10. Arbor Day.
11. Piano solo.
12. How Do Robins Build Their Nests?
13. The Flower Mission.
14. Garden Drill (twelve pupils).
15. Arbor Day song.
16. The Little Brown Wren.
17. Cornet solo --The Holy City.
18. Arbor Day anthem.
19. Presentation of diplomas by County Superintendent.

My space is about all used. Now for a few results. Last June by actual count there were 2,763 living trees on 112 school grounds. The number of school grounds has been reduced by consolidation. Only one school ground is now without trees. Of these 2,763 trees it is impossible to say how many were planted during the last ten years, as no tree census was taken such as was taken in our library work. A conservative claim is that 1,000 of them have been planted. But trees are not the only things planted. This article does not call for a description of our school-garden work. The following reports are a few sent in by teachers each year. These are from my 1909 report.

"Two dozen trees set out, also three lilac bushes and several rose bushes."

"Grounds cleaned, grape vines, ivy, and bittersweet planted."

"Mudhole filled up, brush cleaned off, and rose bushes set out."

"Set out twelve trees, eight wild grape vines, a clematis, a Boston ivy; outhouses screened and yard raked."

"Two outbuildings with screens. Clematis, Japanese hop vine, and wild cucumber planted."

"Grounds cleaned off; six trees and four rose bushes planted."

"Planted three ash, three elm, and seven box elder trees. Set Boston ivy along school building (stone), woodbine along back fence and closets. Also planted eleven Spirea Van Houttei, two weigelia, and eight lilacs."

The above is sufficient for illustrations of concrete work. If things die, why, set out again next year. Keeping everlastingly at it is the price of success.

Also by actual count teachers report 489 good pictures in the various schoolrooms. These pictures are not all of equal merit. But better subjects are being bought now than were purchased several years ago. The taste is improving. The following are a few from my 1909 report. During the last ten years a total of \$8,808 have been raised for pictures, books, and schoolroom furnishing.

"\$17.35 for books, pictures, and sash curtains."

"\$7.41 for a large picture of Lincoln, Emery's *How to Enjoy Pictures*, and for sash curtains."

"13 for a bust of Lincoln, two pictures, and books."

"\$34.36 for clock, picture, bust of Lincoln, chair, books."

"\$15.50 for books, new molding, construction material, picture and cast, the Lion of Lucerne."

"\$64.50 for organ, globe, and pictures."

"\$18.35 for organ, mirror, window shades, sash curtains, bust of Lincoln, wash basin, and drinking-cups."

A closing word with reference to parent-teacher associations as a means of creating new ideals. By all means have such an organization. Try to have the country people realize that the school belongs to them and they can have better conditions. The great problem, of course, is to get them to WANT better things.

V. ORGANIZED RECREATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

MYRON T. SCUDDER

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GENERAL PRINCIPLES

When the rural school really finds itself it will pay much attention to wholesome indoor and outdoor recreation. There will be social evenings, lyceum activities, and clubs of various sorts; there will be the woodcraft and water sports of the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts as well as the plays and games and contests of the playground and athletic field. All these things and more are included in the wider meaning of the words play and playground.

It has been suggested that the playground as it is now conceived ought to be called the "outdoor" school, for such it really is, while the meaning of the word play must be extended to include all means of passing one's leisure or recreation hours.

Play is the rightful heritage of country children as well as of city children and to district schools as well as to graded schools we must look to see that these children come into their own.

An adequate program of play would include pleasurable outdoor and indoor occupation, for (a) homes, (b) day schools, (c) Sunday schools, (d) other social organizations, public and private, suitable for Sundays as well as for week days, adjusted to the season of the year, and adapted to the needs of (1) very little children, (2) children from eight to thirteen, (3) boys and girls in the adolescent period, (4) adults; sex as well as age being taken into account when necessary. The word play thus broadened brings us into the realm of kindergartens, manual-training departments, vacation schools, summer camps, boys' clubs, girls' clubs, nature-study clubs, camera clubs, collection clubs: it has to do with swimming, fishing, boating, skating, skeeing, and snow-shoeing; also with all forms of athletics; with the use of tools and implements, with the use of clay, plasticine, paper pulp, and putty for modeling; with the use of tops and marbles, bean-bags, balls and kites, stilts, toys, soap bubbles, cards, dissected maps, scrap books, and the

myriad other amusement materials, plays, and games which are the heritage of the human race, and without sharing in which no child can grow to complete manhood or womanhood, and no adult can live a cheerful, joyous, well-rounded-out life.

It must be borne in mind that play in the country is not so much to promote health as to develop the higher social instincts, to introduce another powerful centripetal factor into country life which will tend to counteract the expulsive features which have been so actively depopulating our rural districts. The country child does not play enough. His repertoire of games is surprisingly small and inadequate. If he would play more he would love the country better, see more beauty in it, feel the isolation less.

And he would play more if conditions were favorable, for unfortunately they are not favorable to play. He does not know how to play or what to play; his parents are usually out of sympathy with play; and in the country schools not only are his teachers as ignorant as himself in regard to these matters, but even if the child and the teacher *did* know, the school trustee would in many cases interpose objections and forbid any effort in the direction of organized play or athletics. Left to themselves only a comparatively few country districts will attempt to do anything. Initiative will have to come from the outside, but experience shows that with tactful persistence and with organized action considerable may be accomplished even in a short time.

A very important result of play in the country is the development of community spirit which is so seriously lacking in rural districts. There seems to be so little to hold people together. Social forces are centrifugal rather than centripetal. But once interest children in play, get them to organize teams, design and make a school banner, compose and learn a school cheer, adopt a distinctive athletic costume or even a celluloid button which is to be worn when they go to the next great play festival and compete with other schools, and there will be no lack of community spirit so far as the children are concerned, and the adult population will soon be catching something of it too.

As the school is the natural play center of the community, and as supervised play is the only really good kind of play, it follows that the teachers must be play leaders. It is a sorry fact that so few of them are interested, and that so few know how to play. This suggests that courses in play should be given in normal schools and in teachers' train-

ing classes, and that teachers' institutes and associations should take the matter up as practically as possible in their meetings. The country school teachers are handicapped because they are obliged to work almost single-handed. They must go to the grange for encouragement and assistance, and they will get it, too, for the grange has many wide-awake men and women who will gladly co-operate. The normal schools, too, and agricultural colleges must go to their aid, help lay out the grounds, perhaps construct some apparatus, teach new games, assist in conducting badge competition contests. Several of these institutions are already doing these things.

The most important factor in promoting play in the country is the Field Day and Play Festival, the great day of the year when the country schools of the district or township meet at some central point and pass the day in play. Since the first Field Day of this sort was started six years ago in New Paltz, N.Y., the idea has spread from ocean to ocean and it may be said that the Field Day and Play Festival has become an important rural institution in this country. This has been carefully described by the writer of this article in the little manual published by the Playground Association of America, *The Field Day and Play Picnic for Country Children*. Guided by this manual many of these occasions have been successfully administered in all parts of the United States.

The purpose of the discussion to this point has been to indicate the more obvious phases of the play propaganda in relation to these schools, to point out leads that may be followed up.

PRACTICAL EXPERIMENTS IN ORGANIZING RURAL-SCHOOL RECREATION

Six years ago the faculty of the State Normal School at New Paltz, N.Y., conceived the idea of holding Saturday conferences in neighboring country schools. Teachers, parents, and children were invited to attend and bring their lunches, and the local granges were always represented by some of their most influential members. The sessions were intensely practical, taking up such subjects as manual training, cooking, fruit farming, elementary agriculture in country schools, and so on, and finally came to the discussion of the physical and play life of country children. This aroused the greatest interest, and eventually resulted in the formation of the Country School Athletic League, organized to foster all kinds of clean athletics among country children, to teach them

and their teachers outdoor and indoor games, and to bring the schools together at least once a year in a great field day and play picnic. The athletic standards of the Public Schools Athletic League of New York City were adopted, and printed circulars announcing these were sent to each district and village school so that teachers might begin at once to interest their pupils in efforts to attain these standards. All who attained these standards were to be awarded a button, a gun-metal button for the first, a silver for the second, and a goldplate button for the third. These buttons were very handsome and were stamped with the design of a typical country schoolhouse with its American flag.

Blanks like the one shown on this page were sent to each teacher and aided in giving instruction as well as enabling the teacher to make proper records.

ATHLETIC BADGE COMPETITION

COUNTRY SCHOOL ATHLETIC LEAGUE, ULSTER COUNTY, N.Y.

Pupil.....W'gt.....Age.....Yr....Mo....Da....School.....

Events	Required Standard	Actual Record	Date	Regulations
Boys under 13— Chinning.....	4 times	This competition is to take place at each school under the direction of the teacher and a representative of the central committee. Only those whose deportment and scholarship are satisfactory may compete. Boys may run barefoot. <i>Only winners of an athletic badge or button are eligible to enter the field day championship events.</i> There shall be but <i>two</i> trials in chinning, <i>two</i> in the dashes, and <i>three</i> in the jumps. <i>Chinning.</i> The boy must extend himself full length, arms straight, before and after each pull up: he must bring his chin fairly over the bar each time. The feet must not touch the floor or ground. <i>Jumping.</i> --(See rules XXV and XXVII, <i>Official Handbook</i> , P.S. A.L.) <i>Running.</i> --(See rule VIII.)
Standing broad jump	5 ft. 9 in.	
60-yards dash.....	8 3-5 sec.	
Boys under 15— Chinning.....	6 times	
Standing broad jump	6 ft. 6 in.	
100-yards dash.....	14 sec.	
Boys under 21— Chinning.....	9 times	
Running high jump..	4 ft. 4 in.	
220-yards dash.....	28 sec.	
Teacher				
For Central Committee				

A number of games like prisoner's base, captain's ball, and some relay races were written so clearly that anyone could understand them, illustrated with cuts, and published in a village paper, copies of which were sent broadcast throughout the country.

Circular letters giving lists of books on games and athletics, and other important particulars were sent to all teachers, and to further aid the play propaganda teachers from the normal school and students, too, went to country schools if asked to do so, to teach games, help with the badge competition contests, and assist at field days.

Individual schools were encouraged to have their own field days, and groups of three or four schools were urged to have an annual meet.

In furtherance of the play movement, the matter was presented by the normal-school principal at teachers' institutes, granges, and farmers' institutes by aid of the stereopticon and beautifully colored views. In one village a ladies' literary club was so impressed with the value of play for their children that they contributed a Giant Stride to the school.

Individual schools were encouraged to organize relay teams and teams to play prisoner's base, baseball, and other group games, and to compete with other schools. Great excitement prevailed one year when Pancake Hollow School challenged Butternut School to a match game of prisoner's base.

The climax of the year's activities came in June of every year, when all the schools were invited to a Play Festival held under the auspices of the normal school, as many as 4,000 people gathering to spend the day in the open air. This feature of the movement has been carefully described by the writer of this article in the above-mentioned manual, *The Field Day and Play Picnic for Country Children*.

A very important source of help to the promoters of this play movement, particularly of the Play Festivals, is the County Work Department of the Young Men's Christian Association. Indeed, most of the play propaganda in rural districts has been carried on under the County Work secretaries, and it is a splendid story we get from Ulster, Dutchess, Orange, and Rockland counties in New York State, from White River Junction in Vermont, and many other places where the Y.M.C.A. men are teaching and practicing the gospel of play among country boys.

At these field days the grounds were laid out for a variety of court games, and for archery, badminton, volley-ball, and tether-ball. Play-

ground slides, giant strides, merry-go-rounds, swings, teeter-totters, and other outdoor apparatus and appliances were conveniently placed about the grounds. There were also areas devoted to baseball and playground-ball, and many interesting games were taught

ENTRANCE BLANK

ANNUAL FIELD DAY AND PLAY PICNIC OF THE COUNTRY SCHOOLS OF ULSTER CO., N.Y.

School.....Pupil's Name.....
Pupil's age last Sept. 1.....Yrs.....Mos.....Days Pupil's present weight*

Check in this Column	80 lbs. Class (80 lbs. or less)	Check in this Column	95 lbs. Class (Not to Exceed 95 lbs.)
	50-yards dash		60-yards dash
	Running broad jump		Running high jump
	360-yards relay race		440-yards relay race
	115 lbs. Class (Not to Exceed 115 lbs.)		All Over 115 lbs. Class
	70-yards dash		100-yards dash
	8-lbs. shot-put		220-yards dash
	Running broad jump		12-lbs. shot put
	880-yards relay race		Running high jump
			880-yards relay race

.....One-half mile run.One mile run.120 yards hurdle race.
These events are open to any and all who hold buttons.

I also certify that this pupil's average in both scholarship and deportment is passing for the last quarter, or since Easter.

Date of filling this blank.....Principal

Check each event in which pupil wishes to enter. No pupil may enter in more than one (x) class, but may enter all events in that class. Pupil may not enter any class if his weight is in excess of the weight given for that class. All blanks must be in by June 1.

*Pupil should be weighed in the light clothing in which he is to compete. Boys may run barefoot.

the visiting children by the students of the normal school and the children in the training school. A day nursery was provided for the babies and was equipped with comfortable beds, tables, blocks, and games, also a generous sand-pile. A competent nurse was in charge. Drinking-water and toilet facilities were carefully provided,

benches to accommodate 1,500 people were placed around the play areas, consisting of boards stretched across berry crates, and a large tent was devoted to checking hats, coats, and parcels. The accompanying blank may interest those who are investigating the practical details of managing a field day in the country.

Perhaps it is not too much to say that through properly supervised play and through a series of properly conceived and well-conducted festivals the civic and institutional life of an entire county or district, and the lives of many individuals of all ages, may be permanently quickened and inspired, the play movement thus making surely for greater contentment, cleaner morals, and more intense patriotism and righteousness on the farm lands and in the village populations of our country.

VI. THE GENERAL PROBLEM OF THE RELATION OF THE RURAL SCHOOL TO COMMUNITY NEEDS—A SUMMARY

B. M. DAVIS

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The rural school of the early days, considering the needs of almost pioneer conditions, was efficient. It was efficient largely because it was closely linked with the life of the community in most of its interests. The men of the community turned out and together built the schoolhouse. The teacher was a member of the neighborhood group, literally living with them, for he generally spent part of the year in each home. Young men and women between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one attended the school. The weekly literary society and frequent "spelling-bees" contributed to the social life of the community with the school as the center.

Gradually the rural school has lost its hold upon the community. One by one the interests which brought the people and the school together have ceased. Along with these interests has disappeared much educational efficiency. But the traditions which grew up with the little one-room schoolhouse have persisted.

Not long ago the writer attended a mass meeting called for the purpose of considering the consolidation of a township system of schools. The meeting was held in a district schoolhouse which had been built some forty years ago. The house itself, with its much-mended walls, unjacketed stove, and general dilapidation, might have been regarded as a powerful argument for consolidation. The township was rich and prosperous, and conditions were apparently most favorable for the entire township to unite in securing a splendid consolidated school including a high school, in the place of several isolated struggling district schools and a one-room, one-teacher high school. Nearly all of the voting population of the district was present—an example of community interest. More men were assembled than had in years been brought together in this building for a common cause. But strange as it may seem, the common cause that brought them there was

to express an opposition to the proposed scheme. When one prosperous and influential farmer, a grandfather, stated that fifty years ago the district school was good enough for him, and that he could not see why it was not good enough for the children of today, there were many nods of approval. This man had, at considerable expense, been sending his grandchildren to the schools of a neighboring city, but somehow considered it his duty to venture out on a cold, wintry night to do his part in saving the district school.

This introduction contains nothing new, for everyone interested in rural education knows the situation. It is meant to emphasize two important considerations: one, that the success of the old-time rural school was not in its one room and one teacher, and the attention given to the three R's, but that its success was due rather to the hold it had upon the community. The other is the conservative attitude of the rural population toward any change affecting the present organization of the rural schools.

The problem of rural education is an important one. The Country Life Commission, that investigated almost everything concerning rural life, regarded the redirection of the rural schools as the most pressing need for the betterment of rural conditions. The findings of this committee simply add authority to what educators have long recognized. There is no difficulty in finding fault with the rural-school situation but there seems to be great difficulty in finding means to improve it. Various plans have been proposed and many readjustments have been undertaken, yet the general results are far from satisfactory.

Perhaps Professor E. C. Elliot was right in his conclusion that we do not yet really know what the rural-school problem is, and that the first step in solving the problem is to find it. Nevertheless the two points mentioned above are fairly clear. The practical question is how the community and the school may again be brought into closer union, and how the conservatism that has so hedged about rural education may be broken down.

The contributions in this *Yearbook* to the discussion of the "Rural School as a Community Center" indicate that neither phase of the question is beyond solution. After reading accounts of what is actually being accomplished, one is encouraged in taking a more hopeful view of the situation. The evident success in several directions at least points out the way for further progress.

The remarkable influence of the Agricultural High School of Baltimore County, Maryland, on the life of the county cannot, of course, be duplicated in every farming community, for the obvious reason that it is impossible to secure such an equipment and such teachers without first securing a different attitude of the rural voting population toward education. But the fact that this school exists and is doing so much for its community will make it easier to bring other communities to the point of establishing similar schools.

There are now at least seventy-two of these agricultural high schools in this country, and they are all reported as doing excellent work. The degree of their success seems to be in direct proportion to the service they are rendering not only to the pupils in attendance, but to the community as a whole. The farmer is conservative not only in educational affairs but in other matters as well. For this reason, demonstration farms are the most successful form of extension work. He thinks in terms of agriculture, and generally estimates his values of things in dollars and cents. When he has his milk tested by the boys in the public school and is shown that some of his cows are losing him money, he gets a new light on education and assumes a new attitude toward the public school. No argument is as powerful as a simple service like this.

The value of participation by the school in the industrial life of an agricultural community has lately come to be recognized by city superintendents of schools where a considerable number of farmer boys are in attendance. Thus in Stockton, California, a department of agriculture was organized at the beginning of the present year. A director who is an agricultural expert has charge. He is not expected to teach more than one-third of his time; the rest of his time is to be devoted to the "study of the agricultural problems at first hand throughout the farm area tributary to Stockton." He is to take up any agricultural problem at any time, go to the farm, and help find a solution. "By this means the farmer might be reached directly and made to feel that our agricultural high-school course was their course and that our director and teachers were willing and able both to educate boys and girls for profitable farm life and cope with economic problems troublesome and burdensome to them." Short courses are also offered to farmers and those interested in agriculture who cannot take the full course. This work is in co-operation with the State Agricultural

College. A course is offered to students who expect to be teachers with the view of providing the rural schools with teachers having a knowledge of, and sympathy with, farm life. Further aid is given the rural schools by a series of teachers' meetings and conferences with the director in charge. Joint institutes for teachers, farmers, and students are also planned. In addition to the experiment farm connected with the school, others are to be established in various parts of the adjacent farming country in co-operation with the State Agricultural Experiment Station, and also with the United States Department of Agriculture. In a similar manner the girls are provided for by means of suitable courses along the line of household arts.

Miss Field has shown by her work in the Page County (Iowa) schools the possibilities of improvement of the one-room type of school by bringing the school and community into closer touch. "Getting the people together" is the secret of her success. Few county superintendents have succeeded so well in an entire county system. But those who have succeeded have used similar methods, notably Cap E. Miller, Keokuk County (Iowa), Frank D. Joseph, Delaware County (Iowa), O. J. Kern, Winnebago County (Illinois), and a number of others.

One of the most important and far-reaching efforts for improving rural education has been through extension methods. Mr. Howe has given an excellent account of this work. Mention should be made of the fact that the movement, which (as he has described) has become statewide in Michigan, was initiated by him in Wexford County about three years ago.

The membership of boys' and girls' clubs was about 150,000 in 1909, and may be conservatively estimated at more than 300,000 in 1910. Plans are under way for introducing such clubs into several states not now having clubs. For example, the State Superintendent of Education of California strongly recommends their establishment in each county. In Kansas a new interest is being developed in boys' clubs by means of an organization known as the Rural Life Boy Scouts, following the general plan of the Boy Scouts of America. This organization is under the auspices of the Rural Educational Department of Kansas Agricultural College.

State Superintendent Bishop of Nebraska, co-operating with the State Agricultural College, has been particularly successful in giving the girls an equal opportunity with the boys in club contests and other

club activities. How his results have been accomplished will be read with interest because this form of school extension presents unusual difficulties.

The reaction of boys' and girls' clubs upon rural education has been very beneficial. The clubs have been the means of demonstrating that the school may have larger share in community affairs than merely giving formal instruction to children. They have broken down certain prejudices, have made it possible to introduce country-life subjects into schools, and are paving the way for a general redirection of rural education.

Rural-school libraries are unknown in many if not most places. Indeed the necessary textbooks are sometimes wanting. Not only are school libraries needed for the pupils themselves, but in districts remote from library facilities the school library should serve the community as well. Superintendent Graham has indicated how the needs of the school and the community may both be met by the school library. The difficulty lies in getting this work started. The average farmer reads little. He is not even familiar with the agricultural literature provided free of cost by the United States Department of Agriculture and by his own state experiment station. Few rural teachers know of these sources of information on country-life subjects. The possibilities for enriching rural life through use of books have not been realized except in a limited way. There are about twenty states with State Library Commissions through which traveling libraries are distributed. These reach many rural readers. Two years ago approximately 600,000 books were thus distributed. But this is a small number compared to the millions of people living in rural communities. There is need of some effective organization for making rural libraries available for schools and communities remote from library centers. Farmers and teachers need to know how books may be secured, and much discretion must be used in selecting books that will really be helpful. The farmer needs to read for help more than for entertainment. He is constantly confronted with problems that books may help him solve. It is even more important that the schools give the country boy a start in the use of books to help solve country-life problems. The country boy and the farmers' bulletins mentioned by Miss Field illustrate this point.

The average country-school property may be readily recognized

by the ugly prominence of its out-buildings and the neglect of its yard. The screens over the windows are marks of public indifference toward public property. Much of the vandalism resulting in defacing and injuring school buildings is due to an absence of a civic conscience. The time to arouse this conscience is in the school days, and the place is in the school, not by talking and lectures but by actual participation in material improvement. Superintendent Kern has probably done more to arouse an interest and pride in beautifying school property both indoors and out than any other man. His story of twelve years of work plainly indicates that the problem is by no means an easy one, but the results which he has secured show that such efforts are well worth while.

The use of the rural school as a recreation center offers possibilities for bringing the rural school and the rural community together that have as yet been little realized. It represents an extension of the playground movement into rural schools that is in its early stages of development, and promises to be an important factor not only in making the lives of the rural-school children better and happier, but in bringing the school and the homes into closer union. This form of social activity was started under the direction of the New Paltz (N.Y) State Normal School by Professor Scudder who was then president of the school. He has not only given an excellent general discussion of the educational value of the subject, but has furnished, at the request of the editor, a detailed account of just how the work was planned and carried out.

The agricultural high school, or country-life subjects taught in the high school, the better organization of county and township school systems, boys' and girls' agricultural clubs, school libraries, the beautifying of school grounds and buildings, encouragement of supervised play activities—all these bring the school and the community into closer relations. They furnish points of contact between the school and the community that are mutually helpful. The conservatism of the rural population towards any modification of existing school conditions disappears as soon as the old relation between school and community begins to be re-established. Getting started is the greatest difficulty. But a boys' corn club may be, as it often has been, a starting-point.

Students of rural education are generally agreed that the whole system must be redirected. One important factor in this redirection has been presented in the foregoing concrete instances of what is being

accomplished. These efforts may be regarded as the early stages of a redirected rural education. The problem of redirection is a difficult and complex one, with many factors. As has been said, the difficulties are more apparent than their solution. Lack of financial support, attitude of mind of the farming population due to lack of social contact, of self-culture and of public service, the increasing number of farm tenants (as high as 40 per cent in Ohio), poorly trained teachers, and inadequate school equipment are some of the initial difficulties in the way of general redirection.

Such work as has been described in this *Yearbook* furnishes excellent concrete data for further study of the problem. The secret of success of the work described seems to have been in bringing the school into touch with the community at as many points as possible, and by having the school relate itself to some form of helpful work that may be appreciated by the community. But what elements have these various activities in common that may be combined into a school organization best adapted to rural needs? To answer this question more data are needed, and with these data as a basis the whole problem of redirecting rural education may be investigated in a thoroughly scientific manner.

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CONSTITUTION*

(Revision Proposed by the Executive Committee and Adopted in Chicago,
February, 1909)

ARTICLE I. *Name*.—The name of this Society shall be "National Society for the Study of Education."

ART. II. *Object*.—Its purposes are to carry on the investigation and to promote the discussion of educational problems.

ART. III. *Membership*.—Section 1. There shall be three classes of members—active, associate, and honorary.

Sec. 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this Society is eligible to active membership and shall become a member on approval of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3. Active members shall be entitled to hold office, to vote, and to participate in discussion.

Sec. 4. Associate members shall receive the publications of the Society, and may attend its meetings, but shall not be entitled to hold office, or to vote, or to take part in discussion.

Sec. 5. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the payment of dues.

A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Society on nomination by the Executive Committee.

Sec. 6. The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the *Yearbook*.

Sec. 7. The annual dues for active members shall be \$2.00 and for associate members \$1.00.

* In Part I of the 1910 (Ninth) *Yearbook*, on p. 109, is printed a constitution headed "Revision Proposed by the Executive Committee." It differs from the Constitution adopted in Chicago in two places, namely:

Art. III, sec. 2. The clause "and shall become a member on approval of the Executive Committee" is omitted.

Art. III, sec. 7. The annual dues for active members is stated as \$3.00 instead of \$2.00.

The present secretary was officially informed that this Constitution printed in the back of the 1910 *Yearbook* was adopted at Indianapolis. On this basis he sent statements to active members for \$3.00 dues for 1911. Since then, the question has been raised concerning the adoption of this revision at Indianapolis. If it was not adopted the active dues for 1911 should be \$2.00.

ART. IV. *Officers and Committees.*—Section 1. The officers of this Society shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary-treasurer, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

Sec. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of the president and four other members of the Society.

Sec. 3. The president, vice-president, and secretary-treasurer shall serve for a term of one year. The other members of the Executive Committee shall serve for four years, one to be elected by the Society each year.

Sec. 4. The Executive Committee shall have general charge of the work of the Society, shall appoint the secretary-treasurer, and may, at its discretion, appoint an editor of the *Yearbook*.

Sec. 5. A Board of Trustees consisting of three members shall be elected by the Society for a term of three years, one to be elected each year.

The Board of Trustees shall be the custodian of the property of the Society, shall have power to make contracts, and shall audit all accounts of the Society and make an annual financial report.

Sec. 6. The method of electing officers shall be determined by the Society.

ART. V. *Publications.*—The Society shall publish *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* and such supplements as the Executive Committee may provide for.

ART. VI. *Meetings.*—The Society shall hold its annual meetings at the time and place of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the Society or by the Executive Committee.

ART. VII. *Amendments.*—This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting by a vote of two-thirds of voting members present.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

HELD IN ASSEMBLY HALL OF CLAYPOOL HOTEL, EIGHT O'CLOCK, MONDAY
EVENING, FEBRUARY 28, 1910

President McKenny in the Chair
J. Stanley Brown, Temporary Secretary

The author of the *Yearbook*, Dr. Thomas Denison Wood, presented a clear, incisive résumé of the book, which called forth a large number of questions from a score of members. Among those who participated in the questions and discussions which followed Dr. Wood's introduction, were Dr. Helen C. Putnam, of Providence, R.I.; Dr. Ida C. Bender, Buffalo, N.Y.; Principal Grace Reed, of Chicago, and others.

Dr. Henry Suzzallo of Columbia University gathered up the threads of the discussion in an admirable fifteen minutes' address at the close of the meeting. The meeting was attended by about two hundred, and exhibited a goodly amount of enthusiasm. Before adjournment, the president appointed H. E. Kratz, Calumet, Mich.; Henry Suzzallo, Columbia University, N.Y.; John Kirk, Missouri; David Felmley, Illinois, and F. E. Farrington, of Texas, to act as nominating committee. The meeting then adjourned to come together again at four o'clock, March 2, in the Club Room of the Claypool Hotel.

After the reading of the minutes and their approval, the new members were voted upon, and Mr. Miller, representing the University of Chicago Press, made a statement of the financial condition of the society. On motion of Mr. Farrington, a new list of members, including all up to the date of its making, is to be made and incorporated in the present *Yearbook* and sent to all of the active members of the society. It was agreed that the policy of the society touching the number and contents of the yearbooks be committed to the Executive Committee.

By motion the Board of Trustees was empowered to make a contract with the Teachers College of Columbia University for the provision of one thousand copies of the *Yearbook*.

The Executive Committee elected as permanent secretary and treasurer Mr. Samuel Chester Parker of the University of Chicago, and on motion the president and secretary were authorized to secure an editorial committee for the *Tenth Yearbook*, and to take steps to issue Part Two of the *Ninth Yearbook*.

The committee on nominations reported for officers for the year 1910-11:

For President, C. F. Carroll, Rochester, N.Y.

For member of Executive Committee to succeed Mr. Carroll, President Charles McKenny, Milwaukee, Wis.

For Trustee for three years, Mr. M. J. Holmes, Normal, Ill.

For Trustee for two years, Dr. Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago.

The report of this committee was accepted, and the nominees duly elected.

CHARLES MCKENNY, *President*

J. STANLEY BROWN, *Secretary-Treasurer*

